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SCHOOL LIFE is intended to be useful to all persons whose interest is in education. It is not devoted to any specialty. Its ambition is to present well-considered articles in every field of education which will be not only indispensable to those who work in that field but helpful to all others as well. Articles of high character on secondary education have been printed under the auspices of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, of which Dr. J. B. Edmonson is chairman and Carl A. Jessen is secretary; these articles will continue. Miss Emeline S. Whitcomb, specialist in home economics of the Office of Education, has been instrumental in procuring many excellent papers by leading specialists in her subject. Through the courteous cooperation of Mrs. S. M. N. Marrs and others, the achievements of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the progress of parent education are to be set forth in an important series. Similarly, the activity of Miss Edith A. Lathrop, assistant specialist in rural education, and Mr. Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association, has produced a significant series of papers upon county libraries. The papers in these four unified series will not overshadow others of equal value. Consular reports on education in other countries constantly come to us through the State Department; frequent articles are printed on child health and school hygiene; higher education is represented in reasonable measure. In short, SCHOOL LIFE means to cover the whole field of education as well as its limited extent will permit.

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## Educational Program of More than a Million Organized Parents

*Inspired with the High Ideal of Utmost Endeavor in the Interest of the Child—His Physical, Mental, and Moral Well-Being—the Parent-Teacher Association Is Working with Devotion and Determination. The Present Trend Is Toward Parent Education. As a Step Toward This End, Far-Reaching Plans Have Been Made to Promote Among Parents a Sympathetic Understanding of the School System*

By INA CADDELL MARRS

*President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers*

THE National Congress of Parents and Teachers is the National organization which unites the activities of the members of about 20,000 local parent-teacher associations in the United States, Hawaii, and Alaska. These organizations represent a membership of approximately 1,400,000 parents and teachers. Their declared objects are: To promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children; to bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education.

### *The Standard Is None Too High*

That is a large order, but none too large. High standards for the education and welfare of children are the suprema fe-guards of civilization. President Hoover has set a high goal in his statement of the child's bill of rights, but none too high. The progress of any nation is in exact ratio to the care and protection given to its rising generation of boys and girls. The home and the school are the two institutions society has ordained for this service.

The American people are definitely committed to a sound program of education. Our educational system is constantly undergoing the most searching study in order that it may meet the needs

of a rapidly changing civilization, and provide the kind of education which is essential for a self-governing nation—for "An uneducated people can be governed, but only an educated people can govern itself." It is the high goal of the National



The oak tree symbol of the P. T. A.

Congress of Parents and Teachers to develop in every community in this country an organization which will promote unity of effort in all that concerns the education and welfare of children.

### *Seven Main Objectives in Education*

A few years ago seven main objectives in education were stated by the National Education Association. Teachers and laymen alike welcomed a simple, practical statement which everybody could understand. The seven key words of these goals of education are health, home, school, vocation, leisure, character, and citizenship. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, representing both

laymen and teachers, promptly accepted these tangible and definite objectives as its permanent platform. National and State conventions are presenting inspiring programs setting forth practical methods by means of which parents and teachers may achieve these great purposes in the lives of the children for whose guidance they are responsible. Thousands of local parent-teacher associations are planning their programs from year to year on these subjects.

The trend of local parent-teacher associations is very definitely toward parent education, and away from the more elementary stage of being a source for supplying school equipment and as a medium of entertainment. The programs of the majority of associations are now devoted to problems affecting the well-being of children. Study groups are organized in associations of all types—preschool, grade school, and high school. The number of such groups increased more than 400 per cent during the past year. They are literally springing up over night.

### *Meetings Have Educational Value*

Equal in importance to programs of study groups is the informal education which characterizes every well-conducted parent-teacher meeting. The reports of standing committees are a fertile source of information, for each of the committee subjects offers an inviting field for study and activity, and each committee may become a source of information to the entire membership.

The national congress has some 25 or more standing committees covering prac-



tically every subject which immediately affects child life. The needs of children are so many and so varied in the complex age in which we live that the congress recognizes the necessity for rallying to the service of its member associations the best resources the country affords. Many of the national chairmen are distinguished specialists who give freely of their time and ability, for they recognize in the parent-teacher association an excellent medium for reaching parents. For each important subject there is a national chairman, who works in close cooperation with the State chairman of the same subject. The State chairman in turn offers assistance to every local parent-teacher association. Local associations choose the committees according to the needs in their own communities.

#### *Work of Public Welfare Committees*

In the field of public welfare there are committees on citizenship, legislation, juvenile protection, library extension, motion pictures, recreation, and safety. For example, juvenile protection committees study the laws for the protection of children, which every parent should know. They find out the causes of delinquency and the program of their community for the removal of these causes.

The national chairman of motion pictures publishes in each issue of the *Child Welfare Magazine* (official publication of the congress) a list of motion pictures recommended for the family. Local parent-teacher associations announce this list at their meetings and post it on school and library bulletin boards. The local committee cooperates with managers of motion-picture theaters who are earnestly trying to present only high-class pictures. They find the great majority will gladly exclude objectionable films and present only the best if people will support the best.

The national committee on safety has the generous support and helpful guidance of the National Safety Council. This council has printed a simple and practical survey on home, school, and community safety, which is sent free of charge to any local association. A congress leaflet on safety, available to all local associations, gives full information about obtaining literature on this subject.

#### *Standing Committees on Education*

The department of education of the congress serves a most important purpose. There are standing committees on school education, physical education, student loans and scholarships, kindergarten extension, humane education, art, music, drama, and pageantry. Under the direction of these committees, kindergartens are established, "Know-your-own school" programs are carried on, and boys and girls are helped to continue in school who might otherwise be forced into industry at an early age because of economic pressure or parental indifference. Singing choruses among mothers are being organized in hundreds of associations. These will be brought together, in a great national chorus at the national convention which meets in Denver next May.

Best of all, a sympathetic understanding on the part of parents of the school system with respect to its curriculum, equipment and needs, and problems affecting the teaching staff, is an important step toward the development of an informed public opinion regarding education.

The department of home service has active committees on home education, children's reading, home economics, social standards, thrift, and spiritual training. Indeed, it is evident that parent education about children and their interests—at

home, at school, and in the community—is the outstanding objective of parent-teacher associations, with wisely organized cooperation on a nation-wide scale as the means for getting it done.

The department of health promotes a well-rounded program of health education; physical, social, and mental hygiene being recognized as of equal importance in building sound health attitudes and habits. A "summer round-up" of the children who enter school for the first time in September has been conducted by the national congress for the past four years. The purpose of the round-up is to see that children enter school in good physical condition, as free as possible from remediable defects. Thousands of children have been given an opportunity for freer, happier lives through the careful preparation which has been made during the summer for their entrance upon school life in the fall.

#### *Enlistment in the Service of Childhood*

(Parent-teacher associations are giving important service in bridging the gap between laymen and specialists in the many fields of child welfare.) Much information is available for solving the problems of individual parents and for meeting community needs. The difficulty seems to be to get need and supply together. (National organizations such as the Playground and Recreation Association of America, the American Social Hygiene Association, the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, the Federal Office of Education, and the Children's Bureau, the Department of Agriculture, and a score of others, are finding that the parent-teacher association is an excellent channel for broadcasting the service they have to give toward the building up of finer citizenship through better home and community life.)

In the last analysis, the parent-teacher movement is fundamentally a great educational movement. It is a democratic, cooperative effort uniting all adults who are interested in building a better citizenship for a better America—irrespective of race, creed, or social, economic, or educational differences. (It seeks to unite the universal interest of parents, teachers, and other citizens in the service of childhood for the achievement of its great purposes.)

The education of children is accomplished through many agencies and influences. It is therefore essential that these factors should be coordinated in a harmonious program that will insure the maximum development of which each child is capable. For the achievement of this high purpose the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is organized.



Study group, West School Parent-Teacher Association, Washington, D. C.

# Housing and Equipping the Washington Child Research Center

## Part I. Selecting a Site and Reconstructing the House

*Child Research Center started by 8 cooperating Agencies in Washington, D. C. Problems of Locating and Housing Included Exposure, Drainage, Playyard Space, Rearrangement of Rooms, and Cost of Reconstruction. Experience in Meeting These Problems will be Suggestive to Others Organizing Nursery School Research Laboratories and Behavior Clinics*

By MARY DABNEY DAVIS

*Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, Office of Education  
and*

CHRISTINE M. HEINIG

*Nursery School Director, Washington Child Research Center*

A UNIQUE coordination of interests in child study and parent education was effected with the organization of the Washington Child Research Center. Representatives of 8 organizations which have been working independently in the field of child development and parent education decided to pool their interests and efforts and create a laboratory for child study. These organizations include the Federal Office of Education, the Bureau of Home Economics, the U. S. Public Health Service, George Washington University, the University of Maryland, and 3 organizations—the American Association of University Women, American Home Economics Association, and the Committee on Child Development of the National Research Council. Representatives from each of these organizations form the present executive board of the Washington Child Research Center. The program determined for the center required a nursery school of normally developed 3-year-old children as a laboratory for research, and facilities for conducting a behavior clinic.

One of the first problems faced by the executive board was to find a suitable building for the center and to equip it. This responsibility was given to a housing committee.<sup>1</sup> The adventure involved in securing and equipping the house was so illuminating that the committee was asked to prepare a report of its work.

As a result, the several tasks involved in the selection and reconstruction of a building, and the purchasing and construction of equipment necessary to

meet the needs of a research center and its laboratory, are described in this report. An attempt has also been made to indicate the educational principles which guided the work.

one-story house on the plan of a Chinese compound, to secure rooms in a public-school building, and to adapt garages or a residence to meet the center's needs. During the search for available property, many questions arose which developed the following criteria:

### *The Site:*

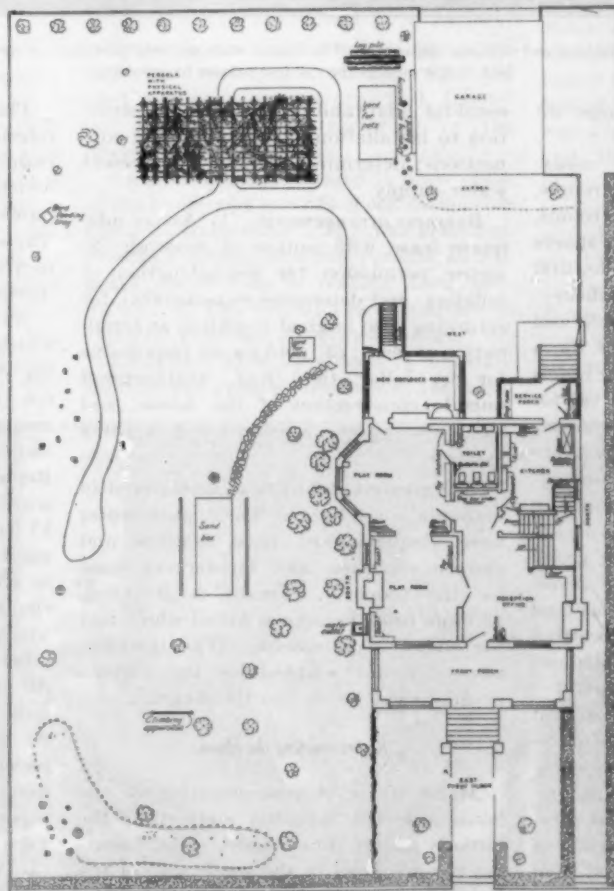
*Location of property:* (1) In or near a residential district in which there are young children; (2) situated as centrally as possible for all the coordinating organizations, and fairly near the center of the city; (3) easily accessible by street car or bus; (4) if possible, near an orphan asylum, children's hospital, or other child-caring organization through which control groups of children might be obtained.

*Size and situation of grounds:* (1) Adequate playyard space; (2) grounds well drained, exposed to morning sunlight, and free from encroaching buildings that would interfere with free circulation of air; (3) yard, regular in shape and securely fenced; (4) removed from excessive noise, dirt, and confusion of traffic.

*City regulations:* (1) Proper consideration of zoning laws for establishing schools in residential districts.

*Exposure:* (1) Southern and eastern exposures to assure adequate sunshine; (2) playroom exposure protected from adjacent buildings by playyard.

*Structure:* (1) Strong and well-built; (2) tight floors, windows, and door frames; (3) outside playroom doors protected with vestibules; (4) low window sills to admit a maximum amount of direct sunshine, and to allow children to see out



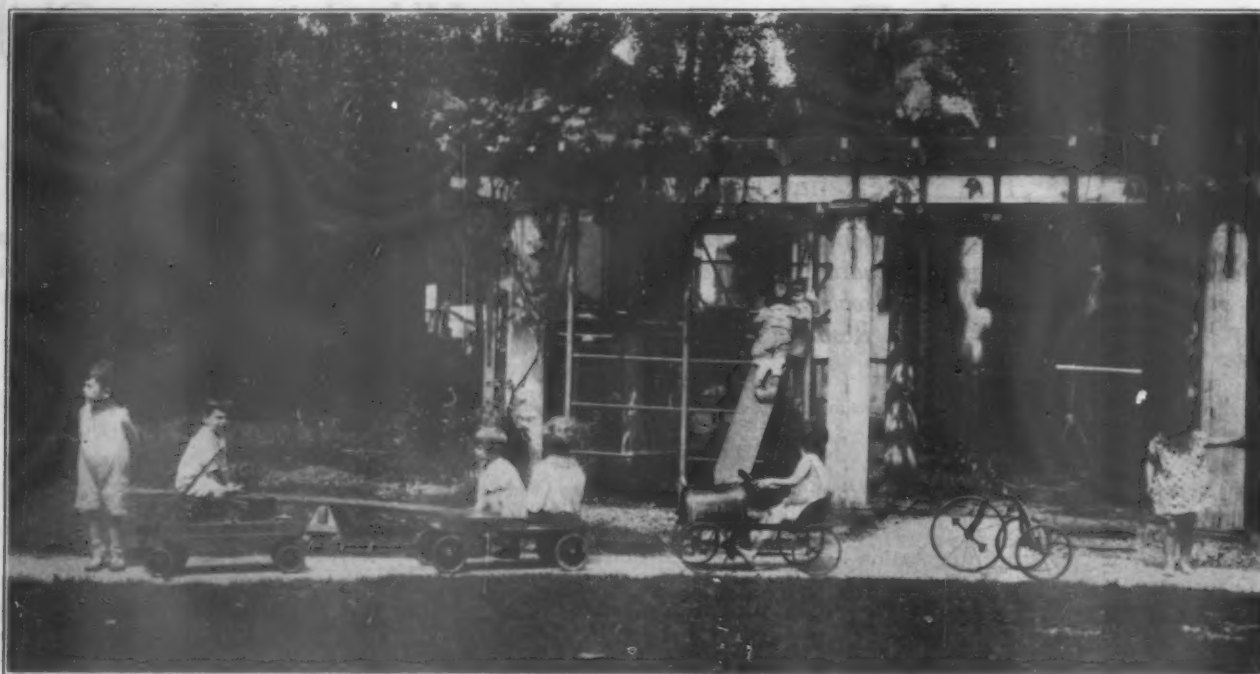
This diagram shows the location of house on the plot, zoning of play apparatus in yard, and arrangement of first-floor rooms. Housekeeper's quarters and children's coat rooms are in basement. Offices, library, and children's sleeping rooms are on the second and third floors

### *Selecting the House*

Many plans for housing the center were considered: To lease land and build a

<sup>1</sup> Housing committee: Anna E. Richardson, field worker in child development and parent education, American Home Economics Association; Grover E. Kempf surgeon, U. S. Public Health Service; Mary Dabney Davis, specialist in nursery-kindergarten-primary education, U. S. Office of Education.





Pergola at rear of yard supports both climbing and swinging apparatus. The cement walk not only provides a proper surface for the use of wheel toys, but is so laid that it satisfies the children's desire for adventure

easily; (5) stairs broken by landings; (6) simple architecture.

*Number and arrangement of rooms:* (1) For the nursery school—playrooms, toilet, sleeping, and examination rooms, kitchen, and adequate closets or spaces for constructing them, all located on first two floors of the building; (2) offices—for the director, for clerical, research, and teaching staff; (3) living quarters for a resident housekeeper; (4) halls and rooms adapted to route children on arrival for physical examination, necessary changes of clothing, toilet needs, and entrance to playrooms and playyard; (5) rooms arranged compactly to insure economy of effort for supervision of children's activities, and to make adjustments for group meetings; (6) toilet facilities easily accessible from play and sleeping rooms and playyard; (7) director's office and waiting room easily accessible to main entrance.

*Service systems:* (1) Heating plant—test adequacy of heating plant and if necessary determine the amount of additional radiation the furnace might carry (hot water systems of heating are preferred to hot air or steam); (2) gas service—discover regulations governing size of meter required for service rendered, and for type of institution registering for the service; (3) electric service—insure adequate lighting for halls, rooms, stairways, porches, and closets (overhead lighting systems throw fewer shadows and give better general illumination than side lights); outlets are needed for service in the kitchen, laundry, and rooms requiring supplementary heat; (4) plumbing—examine sewerage outlets to determine their capacity for carrying additional toilets;

consider adaptability of house construction to installation of new plumbing connections; determine adequacy of present water supply.

*Business arrangements:* (1) Assure adequate lease with option of renewal; (2) secure permission for reconstruction of building, and determine responsibility for returning it to original condition at termination of lease; (3) hold owner responsible for dry cellar, tight roof, weatherproof outside construction of the house, and adequate water, heating, and lighting systems.

The greatest difficulties encountered in finding a house for the Washington center were adequate yard space, southern and eastern exposure, and satisfactory lease for the property. Finally a detached, 12-room brick house was found which met the major requirements. The distribution of rooms adapted for the center's programs can be seen in the diagram:

#### *Reconstructing the House*

Major items of reconstruction in the house selected included converting the butler's pantry into a toilet room, inserting two windows in the south wall of the front playroom, cutting a door from the hall directly to the basement stairway, adding a sun porch with a deck roof at the back of the house, and rearranging the basement to provide a suite of rooms for the housekeeper, in order to isolate the furnace room in which an oil burner was installed, and to provide ample space for the children's coats and hats and a toilet room for them near the basement entrance.

Plans for these adjustments and for the interior decorating were based on certain definite ideas of the kind of surroundings which should be prepared for children, parents, and staff using the research center. These ideas and illustrations of the way in which they were demonstrated are summarized in the following statements:

*Space, actual and effected:* A house in which 25 three-year-old children, a teaching staff, as well as students and visitors are moving about, must have space enough and proper adjustment of equipment to avoid congestion and confusion. Rooms in the house selected for the research center are not large, about 14 by 15 feet on the average. Every effort was made to conserve all available space and to effect space by the manner in which changes in structure were made and in which equipment was installed and by the scheme for decoration. For example: (1) All unnecessary decorative features which either actually occupied space or seemed to do so, were removed. These included paneling on the walls, ornamentation on woodwork, overhanging cupboards, and a superfluous fireplace. (2) French doors were installed where doors were needed. (3) New windows were made as wide as possible, though the height corresponds with others. (4) Cupboards, simple in design, were installed close to the walls. (5) A uniform color for walls was used throughout the house, and in each room the walls and equipment, or the woodwork and equipment, were kept the same color.

*Light, actual and simulated:* Light, adequately capitalized, creates a desirable atmosphere of life and vitality. This requires adding, reflecting, simulating and

softening sunshine. More direct light was provided by adding the sun porch, by replacing stained-glass window panels with clear glass, and by cutting 2 windows in the south wall of the playroom. Sunlight was reflected or simulated (1) by using a cream-colored wall paper or wall paint in all rooms; (2) by painting the trim in the basement coat room a Chinese red; (3) by painting interiors of all closets and cupboards cream color; (4) by using light colored window shades; and (5) in the north windows using transparent, luminous window hangings. Brilliant sunshine in the playrooms was softened by



Sleeping equipment in use

painting the trim a soft luminous green-blue color.

*A setting for effective work:* A physical set-up that insures economy of effort aids efficient work. A home-like atmosphere is also an aid, particularly in a situation in which natural reactions of young children and their parents are essential to the work under way. Economy of effort was cared for (1) by providing easy access of the nursery-school playrooms to the kitchen, coat room, playground, sleeping and toilet rooms, and easy access of the

director's office to the clerical, study, and examination rooms; (2) by convenient arrangements of cupboards for food and dish storage, of tables and shelves for work bases, of refrigerator and cleaning equipment cupboard on the service porch; (3) by an outdoor storage space to protect the children's playyard toys and apparatus; (4) by fencing the playyard so as to combine all play space within one unit; (5) by installation of electric outlets and fixtures in strategic places; (6) by using linoleum floor coverings to deaden sound, and to facilitate cleaning of the playrooms, kitchen, and children's toilet; (7) by using gloss finish paint in the children's rooms to assure ease in cleaning; (8) by installation of an automatic furnace heater to provide even temperature with a minimum amount of attention; (9) by installation of bulletin boards to care for notices to staff and parents, for menus and receipts, and for records of the children's activities. Both homelikeness and economy of space were considered by building visitor's benches over exposed radiators in the playrooms, by the informal combination of a waiting room and clerk's office in the entrance hall, and by the arrangement of furniture in the library and staff offices.

An architect was engaged to draw plans of the house and to write specifications for the work to be done. This was necessary to obtain proper building permits and to guide contractors in making their estimates. It also helped the committee to visualize proposed structural changes.

Estimates were submitted by contractors for the construction work, for deco-



Pantry converted into first-floor toilet room. Bathroom equipped with junior size fixtures; height of basin, 21 inches; of toilet, 10 inches

rating, for plumbing, and for electrical work. These estimates indicated details of the work to be done and the great need for forethought to avoid making changes in specifications after bids were accepted. Eliminations and substitutions were made in the work anticipated when all proposed work proved financially impossible. For example, the cost of reconstructing the upstairs bathroom and installing six junior-size fixtures was about equal to the cost of constructing a sun porch. Money was available for just one of these items, and the porch was chosen. This decision later proved to be of educational benefit. Steps and benches were designed to help the children adjust to adult-sized toilet fixtures.

Work was started the first week in January, 1928, and the nursery school was opened February 22. The total cost for reconstruction work was \$4,033.56.

(Concluded in January number of *School Life*)



Large playroom made possible by opening sliding doors. Note the carpenter-built doll's bed, hollow-box building blocks, section of fencing with balance board and wooden supply boxes, some of which are partitioned. Also note window seat over the radiator, celotex display space on the wall, linoleum floor covering non-tipping stool, and the open supply shelving



# Comparison of Advantages and Disadvantages in Developing Extracurricular Activity Program in Large and in Small High Schools

*Introduction and Administration of Extracurricular Activities in High Schools Depend to Appreciable Extent upon Size of School. In a Study of the Situation, Largely from Viewpoint of the Student, Consensus of Opinion was that Neither Type of School Possesses All Advantages nor All Disadvantages—That Small Schools Must Guard Against Lack of Vision and Large Schools Against Loss of the Personal Element*

By JOSEPH ROEMER

*Professor of Secondary Education and High-School Visitor, University of Florida*

IN much of our educational writing and thinking in secondary education, today, we are not discriminating clearly between the large and the small high school. Most of our thinking is in terms of the large school.

During the past two summers while teaching in the University of Michigan courses in the organization and administration of extracurricular activities in the secondary school, one of the newer administrative phases of secondary education, the writer in trying to get clearly before his students the fact that there are problems related to this phase of the school program which are peculiar to each type of school, worked out a study which is presented below.

## *Students Aid in Solution of School Problem*

In order to help his students to think clearly and concisely about the problems, each student was asked to write out in terse sentences what he considered to be the chief advantages and disadvantages encountered in trying to introduce an extracurricular activities program in a large high school, and to do the same for the small high school. These papers or statements were then put in the hands of a committee who worked them into the form of a questionnaire or check sheet and, with a page of instructions, they were given back to the students to be filled out. The opinions of the class were tabulated from these check sheets into four tables.

The 105 persons who filled the blank were mostly graduate students. They were distributed as follows: 20 principals, 4 vocational counselors, 3 deans of girls, 41 teachers, 4 athletic directors, 2 librarians, 14 department heads, 2 directors of extracurricular activities, 3 assistant principals, 1 college registrar, 9 city superintendents, 1 county superintendent, and 1 State supervisor. Sixteen States were represented in the group, with the bulk of the students coming, of course, from the State of Michigan.

Publication sponsored by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, J. B. Edmonson, Chairman; C. A. Jessen, secretary.

As indicated above, the large and small high schools were compared or contrasted on the general theory that in many instances the circumstances and conditions which constituted hindrances or handicaps in developing extracurricular activity programs in the small high school, would prove to be to the advantage of the large high school, and vice versa.

## *Scope of the Questionnaire*

For the sake of clarity the items in the check sheet or questionnaire were numbered from 1 to 64. They were arranged into four sections, as follows:

I. Items 1 to 10: Some of the difficulties encountered hindering the development of the extracurricular activity program in the large high school.

II. Items 11 to 25: Some favorable conditions encountered aiding the development of the extracurricular activity program in the small high school.

III. Items 26 to 43: Some difficulties encountered hindering the development of the extracurricular activity program in the small high school.

IV. Items 44 to 64: Some favorable conditions encountered aiding the development of the extracurricular activity program in the large high school.

Each group of items was arranged on a separate sheet of paper with space left at the right-hand side in which to place figures. The sheet of instructions said in part:

Not all the class agree as to what constitutes advantages and disadvantages in our large and small schools. In order to pool the combined opinion of the class, this check sheet has been prepared. Many of the advantages of the small high school are listed as disadvantages of the large, and vice versa. In I will be found many statements just opposite to those in II and vice versa.

Sometimes a statement may have as many as three or four correspondingly opposite statements on the other page. Place the numeral of the statement under II in the blank under I, opposite the statement to which it corresponds. Likewise, place the number of the statement under I in the corresponding blank under II. In all cases the numbers on the two pages simply change places. If you do not agree with the statement, and in your judgment it is incorrect, place a cross in the blank after the statement. Go through the same process of comparison with the statements under III and IV.

Since space will not permit printing the tables in detail, the more salient features of each one have been pulled out and stated in condensed form in parallel columns for the convenience of the reader. Although there was a rather wide range of opinions among the 105 persons participating in the project, yet, on the whole, there was a somewhat close agreement among them. Tables A to D give only the more important points of the four larger tables on which they were based.

## *Somewhat Close Student Agreement Shown*

The importance of items was determined from closeness of agreement. It must be understood, therefore, that the range of distribution of opinions is not fully shown.

The numerals appearing on the left margin refer to the statements placed opposite them. These numerals, as is seen, go straight through from 1 to 64. In the parallel columns at the right the numerals refer to the same statements, but are placed in irregular order for the purpose of showing relationship.

The numerals in parentheses in the right-hand column, after each statement, show the number of persons in each instance who checked that statement. In some cases more than one point or statement received a high score; in that event, all the chief ones are given. With this explanation the résumé of the four tables follows:

## *Interesting Developments of the Survey*

A careful, detailed study of the tables will show many interesting things. Although there is a wide range of opinion, yet in each instance there is a rather close agreement on one or more essentials. The writer, by way of conclusion, wishes to call the attention of the reader to a few fundamental things that seem to stand out when educators compare the conditions, difficulties, and advantages met with in large and small high schools in the successful development and administration of a program of extracurricular activities.



TABLE A

*Difficulties in Large High School Contrasted with Favorable Conditions in Small High School*

In the large high school there is a probability of:

1. The individual being submerged in the group.
2. There being less opportunity for pupil-teacher contact.
3. There being a less number of interests in common to the whole group, due to racial, industrial, and other differences.
4. There being a smaller percentage of pupils having an opportunity of participating in major activities of the school.
5. The reticent pupil being overlooked.
6. The school spirit being lessened by the competition of outside interests in the community.
7. Increasing the difficulty of teacher-parent contacts.
8. Teachers becoming too highly specialized, and thus giving biased judgment in guidance.
9. Overorganization submerging the individuality of pupil and teacher in the machinery of the system.
10. The administration thinking in terms of mass production, rather than in terms of development of the individual pupil.

In the small high school there is opportunity for:

15. Personal recognition and identification of pupils (97).
16. A close pupil-teacher contact (100).
23. A more homogeneous group, due to the absence of racial, industrial, and other differences (90).
25. A larger percentage of pupils participating in major activities of the school (104).
13. The reticent pupil to receive more attention (101).
11. Strong school support by the community owing to few outside attractions (89).
18. Obtaining easily a unified school spirit (73).
19. A close relationship between school and community interests (71).
30. Intimate relationships between the home and the school (104).
21. More counsel and guidance work with individuals (60). (Approximately 25 per cent of the answers were "No" to question No. 8.)
12. More easily discovering abilities, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils (38).
15. Personal recognition and identification of pupils (44).
14. Individualized instruction in problem cases (48).
15. Personal recognition and identification of pupils (41).
21. More counsel and guidance work with individuals (36).
24. Pupil contact with school executives (49).

TABLE B

*Favorable Conditions in a Small High School Contrasted with Difficulties in a Large High School*

In the small high school there is opportunity for:

11. Strong school support by the community owing to few outside attractions.
12. More easily discovering abilities, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils.
13. The reticent pupil to receive more attention.
14. Individualized instruction in problem cases.
15. Personal recognition and identification of pupils.
16. A close pupil-teacher contact.
17. An intimate acquaintance between all the pupils.
18. Obtaining easily a unified school spirit.
19. A close relationship between school and community interests.
20. Intimate relationships between the home and the school.
21. More counsel and guidance work with individuals.
22. A greater number of leaders, proportionately.
23. A more homogeneous group, due to the absence of racial, industrial, and other differences.
24. Pupil contact with school executives.
25. A larger percentage of pupils participating in major activities of the school.

In the large high school there is a probability of:

6. The school spirit being lessened by the competition of outside interests in the community (91).
1. The individual being submerged in the group (34).
2. There being less opportunity for pupil-teacher contact (29).
5. The reticent pupil being overlooked (34).
9. Overorganization submerging the individuality of pupil and teacher in the machinery of the system (37).
10. The administration thinking in terms of mass production rather than in terms of development of the individual pupil (30).
5. The reticent pupil being overlooked (95).
1. The individual being submerged in the group (40).
10. The administration thinking in terms of mass production rather than in terms of development of the individual pupil (49).
1. The individual being submerged in the group (92).
2. There being less opportunity for pupil-teacher contact (95).
1. The individual being submerged in the group (55).
6. The school spirit being lessened by the competition of outside interests in the community (77).
6. The school spirit being lessened by the competition of outside interests in the community (70).
7. Increasing the difficulty of teacher-parent contacts (104).
2. There being less opportunity for pupil-teacher contact (57).
8. Teachers becoming too highly specialized, and thus giving biased judgment in guidance (58).
4. There being a smaller percentage of pupils having an opportunity of participating in major activities of the school (43). (Approximately 25 per cent of the cases did not answer this statement.)
3. There being a less number of interests in common to the whole group, due to racial, industrial, and other differences (99).
2. There being less opportunity for pupil-teacher contact (49).
10. The administration thinking in terms of mass productions, rather than in terms of development of the individual pupil (50).
4. There being a smaller percentage of pupils having an opportunity of participating in major activities of the school (100).

TABLE C

*Difficulties in the Small High School Contrasted with Favorable Conditions in Large High School*

The small high school meets with difficulty in having:

26. No ability grouping, interests, etc.
27. Only a small percentage of leaders.
28. No opportunity for leader meetings.
29. Little opportunity for home-room or intramural activity contests.
30. Few men on the faculty for boys' counselors.
31. No trained directors for extracurricular activities.
32. Little diversity of interests and talent among the faculty.
33. Little opportunity for students to participate in school government.
34. Little to which to point with pride to aid development of civic interest.
35. A poorly trained faculty.
36. Poor equipment.
37. A limited student body which does not make possible cosmopolitan ideas and attitudes.
38. A greater turnover in the faculty.
39. A limited program, making adjustment to individual needs more difficult.
40. A limited range of activities for the pupils.
41. A few leaders, who are usually overworked.
42. A small group thus doing away with the pride that comes from working with numbers.
43. An overloaded teaching staff.

In the large high school it is possible to have:

51. Better opportunity for homogeneous grouping (100).
56. More opportunities for developing leaders (66).
56. More opportunities for developing leaders (49).
61. Leadership training more real and less artificial (30). (Twenty per cent believed this "Not true.")
52. More interclass and intramural activities (93).
62. Both a boys' and a girls' counselor (94).
47. Trained directors of extracurricular work (96).
44. Wide diversity of interests in the faculty (95).
50. More practice in student democracy (80). (Approximately 30 per cent believed this "Not true"; approximately 20 per cent left this statement blank.)
43. More better-trained teachers (95).
54. Better equipment for extracurricular work (104).
55. A certain amount of enthusiasm that goes with numbers (46).
57. A greater range of talent among the students (47).
63. Students meet with more life situations (34).
50. A large percentage of experienced teachers and small turnover (100).
53. A more varied social program of activities (46).
64. A more efficient program of extracurricular activities (51).
63. A more varied social program of activities (75).
64. A more efficient program of extracurricular activities (41).
56. More opportunities for developing leaders (55).
53. A certain amount of enthusiasm that goes with numbers (95).
40. The teaching load of faculty adjusted to the extracurricular activity work (98).

TABLE D

*Favorable Conditions in Large High School Contrasted with Difficulties in the Small High School*

In the large high school it is possible to have:

44. Wide diversity of interests in the faculty.
45. More better-trained teachers.
46. More special training among the teachers for extracurricular work.
47. Trained directors of extracurricular work.
48. Diversity in extracurricular offerings, due to diversity in faculty interests and training.
49. The teaching load of faculty adjusted to the extracurricular activity work.
50. A large percentage of experienced teachers and small turnover.
51. Better opportunity for homogeneous grouping.
52. More interclass and intramural activities.
53. A more varied social program of activities.
54. Better equipment for extracurricular work.
55. A certain amount of enthusiasm that goes with numbers.
56. More opportunities for developing leaders.
57. A greater range of talent among the students.
58. Less community interference.
59. More practice in student democracy.
60. Less "riding on family prestige" by students.
61. Leadership training more real and less artificial.
62. Both a boys' and a girls' counselor.
63. Students meet with more life situations.
64. A more efficient program of extracurricular activities.

The small high school meets with difficulty in having:

32. Little diversity of interests and talent among the faculty (98).
35. A poorly trained faculty (103).
31. No trained directors for extracurricular activities (96).
31. No trained directors for extracurricular activities (96).
32. Little diversity of interests and talent among the faculty (77).
43. An overloaded teaching staff (100).
38. A greater turnover in the faculty (98).
26. No ability grouping, interests, etc. (95).
29. Little opportunity for home-room or intramural activity contests (93).
40. A limited range of activities for the pupils (64).
36. Poor equipment (103).
42. A small group thus doing away with the pride that comes from working with numbers (94).
27. Only a small percentage of leaders (63).
28. No opportunity for leader meetings (51).
37. A limited student body which does not make possible cosmopolitan ideas and attitudes (47).
41. A few leaders who are usually overworked (32).
34. Little to which to point with pride to aid in the development of civic interest (22). (Approximately 20 per cent did not believe this statement; approximately 60 per cent did not answer the statement.)
33. Little opportunity for students to participate in school government (77).
37. A limited student body which does not make possible cosmopolitan ideas and attitudes (22). (Approximately 20 per cent marked the statement "Not true"; approximately 55 per cent did not answer the statement.)
27. Only a small percentage of leaders (25).
28. No opportunity for leader meetings (32).
30. Few men on the faculty for boys' counselors (96).
37. A limited student body which does not make possible cosmopolitan ideas and attitudes (45).
29. Little opportunity for home-room or intramural activity contests (32).
39. A limited program, making adjustment to individual needs more difficult (47).
40. A limited range of activities for the pupils (35).

The large high school, with its strong staff of specialized teachers; its larger group of counselors and directors of student affairs; its greater diversity of talents and interests among the faculty; its larger opportunity for developing leaders through interclass and intramural activities due to numbers; and its splendid equipment, making it possible to do a great piece of extracurricular activity work; unless constantly guarded, is liable, according to the opinion and experience of these students, to become a great machine for mass production, thus submerging the individual. If the pupil is of the reticent type, he is liable to be lost; but if he is of the more aggressive type, he is apt to find a wider range of activities in which to indulge—at the expense, possibly, of his academic training. Finally there is found to be little opportunity for parent-teacher contact and also for teacher-pupil guidance, thus tending toward overorganization at the expense of the individual.

*Advantages—Disadvantages of Small High School*

The small high school, with its splendid opportunity for close, personal pupil-teacher contact; its many opportunities for guidance through the most intimate human relationships between teacher and pupil; its opportunities for individualized instruction due to small numbers; and the close relationship possible between school and home, is found, on the other hand, to be tremendously handicapped due to the fact that there are no trained directors of student activities; there is little opportunity for leader meetings; little chance for home-room or intra-

mural contests; little diversity of interests and talent among the faculty, usually a rather poorly trained faculty with a large annual turn-over; and generally very poor equipment. All this may mean a restricted program, making adjustment to individual needs very difficult; a limited range of activities for pupils; and a few leaders being overworked.

*A Brief General Summary*

To restate the problem, the large high school, with its wonderful equipment and highly-trained faculty, is liable to drift into mass production, thus losing sight of the individual pupil and the more human side of education. The small high school, on the other hand, with its many opportunities for personal contacts and intimate relationships, is in danger of becoming sterile and flat due to a lack of the stimulation and vision which comes from well-trained faculties with ample equipment and an enthusiasm, generated in a virile atmosphere of work and progress.

**Course for Elementary School Principals**

A course in problems of the elementary school principalship is offered by the New York State College for Teachers, Albany. In addition to school management, equipment and maintenance of buildings, auditorium and extra-class activities, and pupil guidance, the course will include elementary-school research, and the principal's relation to the community.

**Edgar Allen Poe Annual Essay Contest**

To stimulate interest in the writings of Edgar Allen Poe, an annual prize of \$100, beginning in 1930, will be given by the Edgar Allen Poe Society (Inc.), to the author of the best critical essay on the works of that great American poet, prose-writer, and mystic. Decision will be made by a committee of five persons selected by the society, which has its headquarters at 640 Fort Washington Avenue, New York City.

**State Government to be Studied**

A course in Pennsylvania State government, given at the State capitol in Harrisburg, is offered this year for the first time as an extension course by the department of physical science of Bucknell University. Cooperation of public officials has made possible a series of lectures dealing with the organization, functions, and current activities of the several governmental departments. Each subject will be treated by an outstanding leader in the official life of the State. The course is open to anyone able to fulfill entrance requirements of Bucknell University, and it carries credit toward a bachelor of arts or a bachelor of science degree. Class discussions, reports on textbook assignments, and collateral reading will supplement lectures. Anyone interested, regardless of previous training, may attend the lectures and participate as far as possible in the course. A small tuition charge is made.



# Brief Items of Foreign Educational News

By BARBARA E. LAMBDIN

Editorial Division, Office of Education

**A**N academy of Czechoslovak culture was inaugurated recently at Los Angeles University of International Relations, which is affiliated with the University of Southern California.



Children of workers are attending English secondary schools in steadily increasing numbers. In 1921 parents of 2.8 per cent of the boys and 3.2 per cent of the girls were unskilled workers; by 1925-26 the proportion had increased to 4 per cent for the boys and 4.1 per cent for the girls. Skilled workers comprised 21 per cent of the parents of pupils in boys' schools and 21.1 per cent in girls' schools.



## University of British Columbia Inaugurates Commerce School

A department of commerce was instituted this fall in the University of British Columbia, located at Vancouver. The purpose is to prepare college-trained experts for commercial life. The American Consul-General, Ernest L. Harris, in a communication to the Department of State, reports the appointment of the first faculty member of economics and commerce, and states that additional instructors will be added as the enrollment increases. The expectation is that eventually the department will offer courses in all branches of trade and commerce.



## London Center for English Folk Dance Society

To commemorate the work of Cecil Sharpe, who was instrumental in reviving folk songs and dances in England, and to provide a center for the English Folk Dance Society, a fund of £31,500 has been raised by the society for the erection of a building in London. It will be located at the junction of Regent's Park Road and Gloucester Road. The enterprise, while national in scope, is felt to have international significance, and the building will provide a meeting place in London for folk dance enthusiasts throughout the world. Provision has been made for a library, which will include Mr. Sharpe's private collection of books and copies of his manuscripts. There will be a large

hall for demonstrations and concerts, and it is hoped that eventually an amphitheater may be constructed for open-air dancing.



## Manual and Industrial Arts Promoted in Minas Geraes

A labor university has been planned for the State of Minas Geraes, Brazil, according to information from Rudolf E. Schoenfeld, chargé d'affaires ad interim, Rio de Janeiro. It will be located at Bello Horizonte, and will consist of two sections—one embracing a group of technical and trade schools, the other consisting of a commercial and industrial art museum with facilities for disseminating information on methods and materials used in modern industry. Provision will be made in the schools for the training of artisans as well as of advanced technicians and specialists. In the work emphasis will be placed upon training for vocations that will assist in developing the natural resources of Minas Geraes. The expectation is that each of the 214 municipalities in the State will send from 1 to 3 students and pay their expenses, and that such students will specialize upon a type of work of particular interest to their communities, to which they will return upon completion of the course. It is planned to assist students financially in establishing themselves in their native communities, and in this way the Labor University will be an influence in promoting many small industries within the State and in holding for their own communities artisans and technicians, many of whom have heretofore been compelled to migrate to larger cities in order to obtain employment.



## To Promote International Understanding

A holiday school for English, French, and German boys and girls was maintained during the past summer in England, at Bedales School, Petersfield, with an enrollment of about 140. The children were between the ages of 12 and 16 years, pupils from secondary schools in different parts of the three countries. For them an educational program was planned, the central feature of which was the attempt to master the three languages represented

through the stimulating medium of association and conversation, together with the presentation of plays, and poetic, musical, and artistic entertainments.

Pupils were divided into working groups of about 18 each, composed of students from the three countries in equal numbers; with three national leaders, men and women. In class work, recreation, and at the table, the international distribution was maintained; and as part of the educational entertainment, pictures of the three countries were shown. Excursions were planned to places of interest, including visits to nearby towns and picnics in the countryside of Hampshire and Surrey.

This is believed to be the first organized attempt made in England to bring together as many as three nationalities into one educational environment, though two such ventures had been made before—one in Germany, and one in France—both of which met with such success as to warrant furtherance of the experiment.



## Minority Schools in Lithuania

In communities of not less than 500 inhabitants, minority elementary schools may be established in Lithuania. Under exceptional circumstances, with the sanction of the Ministry of Education, a foreign school may be established for as many as 20 pupils. Minority secondary schools, according to statement of Hugh S. Fullerton, American consul, Kovno, exist only in cities and larger towns.

The curriculum of such schools must conform to official requirements, and the Lithuanian language must be taught as a separate subject in the second, third, and fourth grades of elementary schools, and in secondary schools.

The rights of a State school are enjoyed only by the Polish schools of Panevezys, and by the Jewish nonclassical school of Ukmerge. State school rights may be accorded pupils of other institutions if a representative of the Ministry of Education is permitted to be present at final examinations.

In minority schools the ministry is responsible for the payment of teachers' salaries, and for the upkeep of buildings, purchase of equipment, and foundation and maintenance of libraries.

Minority schools may be founded by municipalities, public or religious organizations, or by individuals; but the requirement is that teachers shall be Lithuanian citizens, and possess educational and moral qualifications equal to those demanded of native Lithuanian teachers. The language of instruction in minority schools is that of the nationality for which the school is established.



## SCHOOL LIFE

ISSUED MONTHLY, EXCEPT JULY AND AUGUST  
By THE DEPARTMENT OF THE  
INTERIOR, OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Acting Editor . . . . . HENRY R. EVANS

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DECEMBER, 1929

### Christmas

CHRISTMAS!—hale and hearty, bluff old Father Christmas—will soon be with us again, with cornucopia filled with largesses for the little ones.

Christmas is peculiarly dedicated to child life, for it marks the birthday of the Babe of Bethlehem, with the Magi from the East coming to lay their gifts of gold, frankincense, and myrrh at His feet. As we gather around the Christmas tree to witness the delight of little children our thoughts range back to our own childhood and youth. Vanished faces that we loved rise before us from out of the shadowy past.

What is the origin of the Christmas tree? Some contend that it goes back to the tree worship of our pagan ancestors of the North; for the tree was sacred to the gods. In Scandinavian mythology the wonderful Tree of Life, *Igdrasil*, had its roots in the Kingdom of the Fates, who spun and cut the thread of human life. "The Christmas tree," says a learned writer on the subject, "is a kind of sacrament linking mankind to the mysteries of the woodland." Doctor Tille thinks that the Christmas tree comes from a union of two elements: "The old Roman custom of decking houses with laurels and green trees at the Kalends of January, and the popular belief that on every Christmas Eve apple and other trees blossomed and bore fruit." In England there was an ancient belief in trees blossoming at Christmas. The idea was connected with the legend of St. Joseph of Arimathea, who when he took up his residence at Glastonbury planted his staff in the ground, whereupon it put forth leaves; moreover, it burgeoned every Christmas Eve.

The great exemplifier of the Christmas spirit in modern times was Charles Dickens. If he had never written anything but the Christmas Carol, he would have immortalized his name among Anglo-Saxon people. Here we see the very heart of Yuletide displayed. We laugh and we shed tears over the quaint old mystical story.

Scott, Thackeray, and George Eliot sit in the seats of the mighty, their brows crowned with laurel, but they never got

so close to the hearts of the common people as did Charles Dickens. Dickens might be called the painter of the masses. W. W. Crotch, in his psychological study of Dickens, compares the master to Shakespeare. He says: "They were alike in the fact that they delighted in the common people, in the flotsam and the jetsam of the towns and taverns, and in the strange and almost picturesque variety of the quaint vagrom characters of the countryside. And they were alike also in this important factor, that at the period of their youth both witnessed a quickening of national consciousness, an upheaval of class distinction, and a great surge of strength and inspiration within the minds of their fellow countrymen. . . . Finally there is this great cardinal resemblance between the two: That both of them felt there to be an actual correspondence, an invisible but most potent contact between the mind of man and the inanimate nature that surrounds him."

"I have shown my soul to the people," says a neglected poet in one of Mr. Crossland's Literary Parables, "and they were not interested. What shall I do?" The wise mentor replies: "Show them their own!" And this is what Charles Dickens did for the English people. He showed them their own souls.

Dickens was the champion of child life, and called the attention of the world to the abuses perpetrated upon the children of his day. We think of him as a many-sided genius but rarely do we think of him in the light of an educator. James L. Hughes, in his *Dickens as an Educator*, New York, 1901, presents this aspect of the master's work in the most admirable manner. Dr. William T. Harris, while Commissioner of Education of the United States, wrote the preface to the foregoing book. He says: "It will be admitted that Charles Dickens has done more than any one else to secure for the child a considerate treatment of his tender age. 'It is a crime against a child to rob it of its childhood.' This principle was announced by Dickens, and it has come to be generally recognized and adopted. Gradually it is changing the methods of primary instruction and bringing into vogue a milder form of discipline and a more stimulative teaching—arousing the child's self-activity instead of repressing it. \* \* \* Walter Scott, in his *Schoolmaster*, has caricatured pedantry; so has Shakespeare. But Dickens has discovered a variety of types of pedantry and made them all easily recognizable and odious to us. More than this, he has attacked the evil of cramming, the evil of isolation from the family in the boarding school for too young children, and the evil of uninteresting instruction."

Mr. Hughes, in introducing his work to the public, says: "This book has two

purposes: To prove that Dickens was the great apostle of the 'new education' to the English-speaking world and to bring into connected form the educational principles of one of the world's greatest educators and one of its two most sympathetic friends of childhood."

To sum up, Dickens was essentially a child-trainer rather than a teacher. In his grand cycle of romances he describes 28 schools and their teachers. Who can forget the school experiences of David Copperfield, Paul Dombey, the Jupes, Tom Gradgrind, and other children?

In closing this all-too-brief résumé of the merits of Dickens the educator, let us say in the language of Tiny Tim, the charming little boy in the Christmas Carol, "God bless us every one!"



### United States Office of Education Administrative Changes

Accompanying the change in name of the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior to the Office of Education, a reorganization of the internal conduct of the office has been effected on a simpler plan. Instead of the 10 divisions formerly maintained through which the distinctive activities of the Office of Education have heretofore been carried out, under the new plan 6 administrative divisions have been set up, as follows:

**Division A, Administration.**—In charge of the chief clerk, including (1) the housing, and routine administration of the offices at Washington; (2) Alaskan schools—all administrative duties.

**Division B, Educational Research and Investigations.**—In charge of the assistant commissioner, including (1) collegiate and professional schools; (2) American schools systems; (3) special problems (including indigenous peoples); (4) foreign schools systems; (5) statistical service.

**Division C, Publications.**—In charge of the editor-in-chief, including (1) biennial survey; (2) *School Life*; (3) bulletin service.

**Division D, Library Service.**—In charge of librarian, including (1) the library of education; (2) service to librarians; (3) service to office staff; (4) service to schools of education (survey data, etc.).

**Division E, Educational Service.**—In charge of service chief, including (1) correspondence lessons; (2) education by radio; (3) cooperation with other officials of the Federal Government; (4) cooperation with nonofficial agencies; (5) organization and direction of local surveys; (6) approved promotional work.

**Division F, Major Educational Surveys.**—In charge of the commissioner.

## Strengthening Our Elementary School Foundation

*The Day Has Passed in America when Education is Considered the Right of Only the Elect. Yet School Statistics Show that the Ideal of Education to the Capacity of Each Individual is Still Unachieved. In Meeting the Present Situation, the Elementary School is an Important Factor*

By BESS GOODYKOONTZ  
Assistant Commissioner of Education

SINCE the early days in this country when education was for a few, and a rather select few, we have gone far in broadening the extent of educational opportunities. We are definitely committed to the ideals of free, universal education, believing that thereby we may provide for the welfare and happiness of each individual and at the same time secure an intelligent, interested, efficient citizenship for the maintenance of our democratic ideals.

### *Educational Standards Must Steadily Advance*

We are constantly setting the goals higher—now we are saying, "A high-school education for every boy and girl." Since 1918 the enrollment in high schools throughout the country has doubled, until now about 55 per cent of the boys and girls of high-school age are in high school. And these fine new high schools throughout the country, with their well-equipped classrooms, laboratories, libraries, gymnasiums, auditoriums, and shops, are helping greatly in making possible the education which leads to happy, worthy, intelligent citizenship.

But where are the others? It is not enough for only 55 per cent of our boys and girls to share these privileges. The truth is that many of the others are not prepared for high school. Of each 1,000 children who begin school in the first grade, nearly all finish the fifth grade, but from this point they drop out rapidly—between 60 and 70 per cent of them finish the eighth grade.

### *The Tragedy of Low Educational Standards*

If continued, this means that about a third of our boys and girls may not go on to the varied courses of training so generously provided in the high schools. Many will not have developed facility in using the reading, writing, and arithmetic tools, and will almost certainly not have developed any basis of understanding or appreciation of social and economic principles and organizations.

But worse still, many children of elementary-school age are not in school at all. The last census showed that we have in this country a million and a half

children who did not attend school for a single day in the year. Add to this the numbers of children who did attend, but very irregularly or for short terms, and we have a good-sized army of children growing up both untrained and uneducated.

Who are these children who drop out after finishing the fifth grade, or who attend school very irregularly, or not at all? Some of them are the million children between 7 and 13 years of age in rural districts who were reported in the last census as not attending any school. Some of them belong to the million negro children between 5 and 17 years of age who were not enrolled in school according to school attendance reports for 1925-1926. Still more are those who drop out to go to work, as they may do in more than half of our States, with only a fourth, fifth, or sixth grade education. Some of them must work, but to some a job seems more nearly the real center of learning than does the school which they have known.

### *Some of the Children Who Drop Out*

Others who do not profit from the established systems of elementary education are those mentally, physically, and morally handicapped children, for whom educational facilities suited to their special needs have not yet been provided in some States and localities. And still another group, often uncared for, is made up of those children who do not progress evenly through the grades of the elementary school, but who fail again and again for one reason or another, and who eventually drop out of school with a meager, unsatisfactory educational experience.

Here, then, is a great group of children for whom the public-school system is not providing a sound foundational education, fitting them neither for continued study in a high school with its broader facilities for developing both intellectual interests and practical skills, nor for intelligent participation in life's responsibilities. If the elementary school is to furnish these foundations, parents, teachers, and school administrators must unite in requiring certain changes in our present elementary-school organization.

Besides adequate legislation and administrative machinery to secure enrollment and attendance of all children of school age and to provide schools for children so enrolled, certain internal changes are needed.

### *Not All Elementary Schools Adequately Equipped*

First, we must recognize in practice as well as in principle that children are not equipped either in interest or in ability to do exactly the same work, and provide a much wider field of studies than is usually offered by the elementary school.

In some places the junior high school has provided courses in science, manual and domestic arts, and vocational training. Similar suitable material should be offered in other elementary grades to provide for well-rounded training. The general average of elementary schools shows that little attention is given to natural sciences, social sciences, vocational interests, or leisure time interests. We are furnishing a rather unbalanced diet; there should be more variety.

In the second place, we should more generously provide equipment for elementary schools. Many cities throughout the country are providing in their elementary schools well-equipped laboratories, gymnasiums, libraries, workshops, music and art rooms. But too many elementary-school pupils are spending their school years in barely furnished and meagerly equipped classrooms which in no way meet the higher standards set for high-school equipment. Schools need books, but not books alone.

Third, we must provide social and financial recognition adequate to make superior, well-trained, experienced teachers willing to teach in the elementary school. It is illogical to accept lower standards of instruction for pupils who have not yet developed independence in study than would be accepted for older, more experienced pupils. If the elementary school is to furnish a sound basic education, conditions must be such that teachers will select their place of service on the basis of where they can serve best. This will be done when compensation matches service.

### *Children Must Not Feel Themselves Failures*

And, fourth, the elementary school must insure against failure of its pupils. They may not all achieve on the same level or in the same amount or degree, but in different types of schools, or courses within schools, they will find the kind of training suited to their needs and abilities.

All these things we must bring about if we would strengthen our elementary schools to build sound foundations for happy successful living.



## Raising the School-Leaving Age in Great Britain

*The Question of Adding One Year to the Present School-Leaving Age Has Long Been Discussed in Great Britain. For Years Teachers and Far-Seeing Friends of Education Have Advocated It as a Needed Reform. Interest Is Widespread; and the Measure Is Favored by the Labor Government Now in Power*

By JAMES F. ABEL

*Specialist in Foreign Education, Office of Education*

RAISING the school-leaving age from 14 to 15 is just now the main educational question in Great Britain. Extending for the children of Great Britain the time of compulsory school attendance by one year is an educational move of major proportions. Probably it will be done. At the May elections two of the political parties announced themselves in favor of it, and a third voiced no opposition. Apparently the English people have accepted the principle. The ways, means, and time of applying it are the subject of many meetings, investigations, and discussions, and on these points the differences of opinion are considerable. Expressions that it should not be carried out are very few.

### *Present Government Favorable to Action*

The present Labor Government is committed to it. Shortly after his call to the office last June, the president of the board of education addressed to the teachers of England an appeal for active help, advice, and support in overcoming obstacles, and in securing patient and hopeful public opinion in the formative years of the changes to be made in education, particularly in regard to raising the school age and providing nursery schools. To the House of Commons, on July 18, he made the statement that:

His Majesty's Government have carefully considered the most suitable date for raising the school age to 15. After weighing all the circumstances they have decided to prepare the necessary legislation to raise the school age to 15 as from April 1, 1931.

Not long after this announcement he held a conference with representatives of the principal associations of local education authorities, discussed with them the measures required for giving effect to the decision, and asked the authorities to begin considering at once the steps they would take to provide necessary accommodation for the additional pupils that would be kept in school when the act went into operation.

About October 1, the board issued Circular 1404 calling the attention of local education authorities to its decision, and stating that in view of the great task and the comparatively short time in which to accomplish it, the board will raise its present grant of 20 per cent of approved

building expenditures to 50 per cent, "subject only to the condition that this expenditure shall represent an effective contribution to an approved scheme of reorganization and development." In other words, the National Government will assume one-half the cost of providing the necessary accommodation.

### *Change Contemplated for a Long Time*

This change in the school-leaving age is not at all unexpected. As a matter of fact, it has been contemplated since 1918 and has been more or less before the British public for the past decade. The education act of 1921 fixed the compulsory education age at from 5 or 6 to 14 years, but gave local education authorities power to raise the age to 15 if they wished. Two or three, notably Plymouth, have already done so. The education act of 1918 for Scotland gave the Government power to change the age from 14 to 15 when it would, and no special legislation is now needed for that country. It is necessary in England.

The movement was given much impetus by the work of the Hadow Committee, appointed in 1924 to consider and report upon the organization, objective, and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than secondary schools, up to the age of 15. Its report, "The Education of the Adolescent," was widely read and discussed in England, and attracted much attention among school men in other countries.

### *Recommendations of Far-Reaching Importance*

In effect, the report set up the objective of a universal system of post-primary education for all normal children between the ages of 11 and 14, and as soon as possible, between 11 and 15. Primary education is to be regarded as ending at about the age of 11 plus. The second stage should then begin, a stage in which there will be a variety of types of education—all controlled by the common aim of providing for the needs of children who are entering and passing through the stage of adolescence. The Hadow Committee saw that the 3 years from 11 plus to 14 made all too short a term in which to

give good post-primary training, and included in its recommendations:

It is desirable that legislation should be passed fixing the age of 15 years as that up to which attendance at school will become obligatory after the lapse of 5 years from the date of this report—that is to say, at the beginning of the school year 1932.

Since the committee was appointed by the board of education, its views would ordinarily have had all the weight of an official pronouncement, but the board, unwilling to withhold from the public data and opinions of such importance until the board could give them full consideration, published it with the statement that the board could not be considered as committed to all the conclusions and recommendations.

After the Hadow Committee's findings had been in the hands of the public some 16 months, the board issued its pamphlet No. 60 on the "New Prospect in Education," to suggest ways of meeting, and to give examples of attempts to meet the problems raised by them. The board prefaced its pamphlet with the statement that:

In the first place, it is important to grasp the fact that the report had in mind all sorts and conditions of children, the humble and the weak as well as the mighty and the strong, and that to concentrate especially on the erection of a few splendidly equipped schools for selected children is to miss the real lesson. The advance contemplated is not on a narrow and selective front, but the whole line is to move forward.

### *Economic Determination of School-Leaving Age*

As a matter of fact, the difference in England between those parents that allow their children to leave school at 14 and those that keep them in school after that age is a purely economic one. The children of wealthy parents stay in school; those of poor parents leave. Raising the age will put all the children on the same level for at least another year. That is one of the chief arguments for the reform.

Problems involved are many; the main ones are the provision of buildings and equipment; arranging for additional teaching staff; changing the curricula; and deciding upon maintenance allowances, if any are to be given, and their amount. Numerically, from 400,000 to 450,000 children in England will be kept in school one year longer; in Scotland, about 60,000. The estimate is that Scotland will need 1,550 more teachers; England between 9,000 and 10,000. The per annum cost for each child in elementary education in England is roughly £12; in Scotland, £14. This means that approximately £4,800,000 in England, and £840,000 in Scotland must be expended annually in addition to the amounts now used for education in those countries. The large cities will have the heavier responsibilities. London will be required to take care of about 50,000 additional pupils. Glasgow must provide 21 per



cent of the increased accommodation for the 60,000 children in Scotland. Leeds will add 5,000 to its present total of 68,000 children.

#### *Change Not Immediately Effective*

This does not mean that the entire change will be effective on April 1, 1931; the law will not come into full operation until a year later. The school year varies in different localities. It may be either 3 or 4 terms. The 400,000 to 500,000 children affected will be absorbed during the year in 3 or 4 groups by holding in school at the close of each term one-third or one-fourth of the children that come within the provisions of the law.

Great Britain already has practically a full 8-year term of compulsory education. Few countries have more than that, and in those countries the law is not always strictly enforced; most countries are content with 8 years or less, and in many of these law enforcement is very lax. The change to 9 years, if made in Great Britain, will be in the nature of pioneering, a new step for one of the larger nations. The record of the British Government assures that the law will be carried out in no haphazard way.

#### *The Additional Year Will Enrich Education*

This is far more than adding one year of school attendance. English laymen and educators alike are thoroughly aware of the fact that merely another year of attendance would be of little value, and that the entire school curriculum must be revamped and the final year of the child's schooling be made a vital thing—more valuable than any of the previous years or, perhaps, than all of them together. Apparently the school men and women of Great Britain sense their responsibility and are willing, even glad, to meet it. The Scottish Educational Journal says:

It is evident that the change over will not be easy, so that the fullest possible measure of cooperation is needed to make the path as smooth as possible. On none is a heavier burden of responsibility for such a consummation laid than on the teachers of Scotland. For years they have used all their resources of influence and argument to persuade public and parliamentary opinion to introduce this reform. None have studied the problems involved with more assiduity. It is therefore their duty now—and we know it will be gladly performed—to do everything in their power to assist those who are entrusted with the task of giving shape to their aspirations.

#### *What It Will Mean to the Masses*

The Journal of Education and School World comes to the task more cheerfully and challengingly:

The difficulties of which we have spoken are really the sign of great opportunity—the greatest opportunity

that has ever fallen to the teaching profession in this country. Think of it. A 4-year course from 11 to 15 for the children of "the masses," with complete freedom to try out interesting experiments. The thing has never happened before. It has not happened in the secondary schools, because the secondary-school teacher is bound hand and foot by the requirements of an external and an almost exclusively academic examination, a fate from which may the modern schools be delivered!

Space does not permit discussing here the economic, industrial, unemployment, and other phases of the general situation in Great Britain that have been paramount matters in making the raising of the school-leaving age seem to be a wise national policy. Some opposition has developed, much of which has been answered by the direct question, "If you could avoid it, would you allow your children to leave school at 14?"



### **Educational Values in Children's Christmas Gifts**

FROM the elaborate display of gifts for children in shops and in illustrated advertisements, it would seem that the selection of a Christmas gift for a child is a simple problem. Yet for parents who realize the educational value of play, who seek gifts of permanent worth that will give the greatest satisfaction for the longest period of time, the selection may be difficult. They may find valuable suggestions among common tools and raw materials.

#### *Children Know What They Want*

Children's interests are both modern and utilitarian. They want toys which represent the latest mechanical achievements, things that produce action. Children beg to have the automobile, the radio, and the airplane. They want toys with which they can keep pace with the life about them. The test of a child's toy is the test of use. Too often parents and children are keenly disappointed to find that the much-longed-for, ingenious mechanical toy must be put aside because the limitations of its mechanical operations have been exhausted. It is then either taken apart or broken to discover its mechanism. If a toy can stand the real test—if it can be taken apart and put together again—it is valuable. If not, it is soon discarded by the child for a more useful piece of equipment.

Gifts which possess distinct qualities for physical and social expression hold the interest of children. The pair of skates, the kiddie car, the unbreakable doll, the attractive and interesting book, are among the cherished and never-exhaustible gifts.

Among the displayed gifts are found many pieces of equipment and materials so common that they are not given the consideration they deserve. Saws, hammers, spades, shovels, buckets, blunted scissors, and household utensils are valuable and acceptable gifts for children. Such raw materials as wood, glue, paper, cord, wire, paint, dyes, fabrics, soap, clay, lime, cement—all, are most stimulating to the creative aptitudes of children.

#### *Children Enjoy Their Own Handiwork*

What boy would not like to build his own radio set? What girl would not like to dye her own fabrics, weave her own scarf, and sew for herself as well as for her doll if she had the necessary materials out of which she could design and fashion whatever garment she chose? Given the necessary things with which to work, what boy or girl would not be challenged to exercise both ingenuity and skill in the fabrication of materials and equipment?

The child who is sensitive to sound finds satisfaction in fashioning his own musical instruments. The child who loves color will find delight in the variation of effects secured through the application of dyes and paints to paper, wood, or woven fabrics. The child whose eye discerns the fineness of line and form will delight in drawing and in modeling, and for the boy or girl who seeks enjoyment in books, there is no limit to the selection.

It is through experimenting with color that children learn to enjoy and to distinguish values in color. It is through the use of raw materials that children acquire a knowledge of the characteristics and possibilities of materials. In a stimulating environment imagination finds opportunity for expression. Children love to investigate, to manipulate, to construct, to create.

#### *Simple Things Are Often Best*

Educational possibilities of simple tools and materials are almost unlimited. They exact ingenuity on the part of children. No mere pulling of a string or winding of a spring produces results. The manipulation of materials and shaping it to some purpose requires thought and considerable skill. Such activities offer abundant possibilities for constructive abilities to assert themselves—for the child to think, to plan, to create, to enjoy the results of his labors, and to learn by actual experience. Parents interested in educational opportunities for their children may find the selection of Christmas gifts an interesting educational adventure.—*Mina M. Langvick.*

# The Art Museum's Educational Service to Industrial Arts

*Service of American Art Museums to Industrial Arts is Increasing. It is a Large Field Constantly Widening. Oriental Peoples for a Long Time, and Europeans More Recently Have Realized the Advantage of Combining Utility and Beauty. America is Fast Awakening to the Necessity of Following Their Example in Making Art Useful and Industry Beautiful*

By GLADYS POTTER WILLIAMS

Head of Art Department, Southern Illinois State Normal University

BEFORE 1918 there was virtually no American style of design. The industrial designers and manufacturers were eager for inspiration. The art museums felt they had much to contribute, and so a definite program was started which has grown steadily in influence and scope. It was hoped that this service would help the American designer and manufacturer to compete with European nations and enable them to take their place in the industrial arts world. In 1927 this hope had not been fully realized.

The purpose of this study is to trace the growth of the art museum's service to the industrial arts in order to discover how far the problem had been solved. Development of the educational work of art museums during the period 1918-1928 shows definite stages which were the result of varying conditions.

## The First Period, 1918-1923

This first period witnessed the inauguration of museum educational services to industrial designers and manufacturers in America. During this time 35 museums offered free general service to the public. Of these the following had undertaken free educational service before 1918:

The Art Institute of Chicago; Boston Museum of Art; Cleveland Museum of Art; Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City; Toledo Museum of Art; and the St. Louis Art Museum.

Similar service was instituted in 1919 by the Brooklyn Museum of Art and Sciences; the Albright Gallery, Buffalo; Brooks Memorial Museum; Carnegie Institute, Pittsburgh; Cincinnati Art Museum; Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D. C.; Detroit Art Museum; Herron Institute, Indianapolis; Newark Museum of Art and Science; Portland Art Association; Pennsylvania Museum; Park Museum, Providence, R. I.; Syracuse Museum; Minneapolis Art Institute; and the Art Museum, Worcester (Mass.).

Such service was instituted in 1920 by the Charleston (S. C.) Museum; the Kansas City Art Institute; Montclair (N. J.) Art Museum; Milwaukee Art Institute; Rochester Memorial Art Gal-

lery; and the Springfield (Mass.) Museum. In 1921 the Hackley Gallery of Art, Muskegon; the Staten Island Art Museum; and the University Museum of Philadelphia instituted similar service.

## Additional Museums Fall into Line

Other museums to enter the movement in offering their services were: The Arnott Gallery, Elmira, N. Y., in 1922; the Fort Worth Art Association; National Museum, Independence; the Hall Group, Philadelphia, and Butler Institute, Youngstown, Ohio. In 1923 the Baltimore Museum of Art entered the movement; and in 1927, the Brunswick (Me.) Museum; the Columbus Gallery of Fine Arts; and the Fogg Art Museum of Harvard University.

This record is complete in so far as museums have had records of their educational service published in American art annuals.

The prevailing difficulty has been the lack of understanding on the part of the public as to the place of museums in modern life. Furthermore, insufficient funds and difficulties due to an inefficiently organized system handicapped the isolated museum. In 1920 cooperation among museums was believed to be the remedy for these faults. Museum authorities realized that through cooperation they could establish a systematic interchange of information and service between museums, increase the number of active museums, and create in the public mind a clearer understanding of the function of the museum. This resulted in the organization of a practical program for the American Association of Museums, in order to give a strong backing to each active museum.

## The Second Period of Development

The second period began in 1923, when the American Association of Museums succeeded in securing funds for a 3-year program to prove the value of organized cooperation among museums. During the first year following the adoption of this program the association attempted four projects. The first pro-

ject undertaken was to develop the periodical, "Museum Work," in order to give all museums an official means of communication. The second project was to conduct researches into the principles and practices of museum work undertaken by the staff and other interested agencies. The third was to establish a bureau of information at Washington; and the fourth was to promote on the part of the public a clearer understanding of museums and their aims.

## Museum Research Stimulated

A significant outcome of the second project was Richards' analysis of European industrial art museums, commenced in 1925. This was carried on in behalf of the American Association of Museums, to afford a better understanding of methods of furthering the development of industrial arts in America. He reported 78 industrial museums, separate from other museums, in Europe. Because the influence of industrial art so intimately touches the American home, thereby affecting the American taste, Richards maintained that the establishment of separate industrial art museums in America would be feasible notwithstanding the expense. The possible service of such museums to designers, craftsmen, and manufacturers would offer the following advantages: (1) Freedom from the condensation of art museums; (2) concentration upon service in a specific field, to increase efficiency.

## Facing New Problems

It was through the efficiency of her separate industrial art museums that France was able, within less than 30 years, to change her status in the industrial art world to one of eminent position.

The part in our civilization played by the industrial arts demands serious consideration of the problem by our museums, especially as to the scope and character of collections; methods of display; exhibits to be held; activities for the public; and special methods of interpretation for designers, craftsmen, and manufacturers.

One of the first observable results of this newly organized program was an increase in the visits to museums. By 1925, several museums had a yearly attendance of over a million, in contrast to a few hundred at the beginning of 1918. This new interest on the part of the public necessitated a rearrangement of collections in order to appeal to the tastes and needs of different types of visitors. New ideas were constantly evolved and developed in making adjustments to meet new situations.

Other results should be noted: (1) Contributions to scientific research studies, including Coleman's inspection of more



than 200 American museums; (2) an exploratory study of installation of collections, commenced in 1925 by Dr. E. S. Robinson, of the University of Chicago, has been continued by a research worker under Doctor Robinson at Yale University, and later by one at Harvard University; and (3), through the efforts of the association, an exhibition in America of industrial art objects from the International Exposition of Modern, Decorative, and Industrial Art, held at Paris in 1925. Before its return to Paris the collection was displayed in art museums of New York, Boston, Cleveland, Chicago, Detroit, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Pittsburgh, and Buffalo. This gave industrial art workers and manufacturers of this country an opportunity to study the European modern idea in design and to compare the designs.

Another undertaking in the effort to make museums more vital in the life of the community has been the attempt to strengthen intermuseum relations in America and the establishment of international relations with British and French museum associations.

#### *The Third Period of Development*

The year 1927 marks the beginning of the third period. During that year modernistic design of 30 years' standing in Europe began to be felt in America, and attracted the attention of some of the most noted museum officials, industrial designers, manufacturers, and architects. The Metropolitan Museum recognized this as reflecting the spirit of the day.

"Modernism," like all decorative periods, has become a power affecting the artistic trend of social power. It has become closely related to an interested

and participating public. In America the movement, though in its infancy, is full of a hearty, vigorous energy. America is in a transition stage; it is on the verge of entering upon a remarkable development in the evolution of art, yet in the embryonic state.

#### *Museums Give Enthusiastic Cooperation*

By 1928 museums were giving valuable help in furthering the development of an American style. The foundation of all museum teaching is the development of an appreciation for art objects. In 1917 this phase of art teaching was scarcely begun. By 1927 practically every American museum was endeavoring to teach art appreciation, although museums still have no definite theory as to how it should be taught.

A questionnaire sent to 41 of the largest museums early in 1928 revealed the fact that 14 museums were offering educational service to industrial arts and that the Art Institute of Chicago was making plans to inaugurate such work. Free educational service to the public was offered by 39 museums. Such service to the industrial arts took the following forms:

1. Free use of galleries to designers, manufacturers, and producers with or without instruction.
2. Rooms provided for study hours.
3. Interpretation of collections, given to individuals, groups, and societies.
4. Lectures given to designers, manufacturers, producers, and salespeople.
5. Visits by staff members to factories, shops, and department stores in order that, through better understanding of workers' problems, improved service may be given.

6. Provision for study in textile rooms and print rooms.

7. Opening of libraries to visitors seeking information.

8. Reproductions of collections loaned to industrial firms.

9. Prints, photographs, lantern slides loaned to designers and manufacturers.

During the period 1918-1928 no fewer than 14 museums held exhibits classified under one of the following heads: Industrial art exhibitions; craftsmen exhibitions; homeland exhibitions; and comparative exhibitions.

#### *Special Exhibits an Important Factor*

The Metropolitan began in 1917 its annual Industrial Art Exhibition, and is continuing these exhibitions on a much larger scale than in 1918. The Cleveland Museum of Art in 1919 began its annual series of exhibits known as the Cleveland Artists and Craftsmen Exhibition. The "Homeland" and "Comparative Exhibitions" were not held annually. The "Homeland Exhibitions" were promoted with the purpose of fostering a closer relationship between the foreign-born and native American by showing a sympathetic interest in the home countries of the newer Americans. The "Comparative Exhibitions" gave an opportunity for the study of industrial art objects made during different periods.

These exhibitions revealed the following facts: 1. An increased interest in museums by designers, manufacturers, and general public. 2. That museums perform a definite laboratory function in serving the industrial arts through their collections. 3. They give an opportunity to discover preferences of the public, and

(Continued on page 79)



Textile Room—Industrial Arts—Metropolitan Museum, New York City



# The Contribution of City Parks to the Work of City Schools

*City Parks Have a Value All Their Own. They Offer the Only Place in Many Communities Where Fresh Air and Recreation Are Free to All. They Conserve Health; They Possess Great Educational Value; They Are an Important Agency in the Promotion of Democracy. Cooperation Among City, School, and Park Officials Will Realize These Benefits for a Community*

By FLORENCE C. FOX

*Associate Specialist in Elementary Education, Office of Education*

THE city opens a public park for the child's pleasure and amusement, keeps it clean, fills it with trees and shrubs to make it woodsy and with flowers to make it beautiful. It gives him a tennis court and a golf links where he needs to pay but half a dime for the game. It opens a wading and a swimming pool for his use and employs a caretaker to protect him in his games and sports. It engages a band to entertain him and collects a menagerie of wild beasts for his study and delectation.

## *How to Use City Parks*

The city park has a fourfold value to the people who visit it. Its first value, perhaps, is the esthetic appreciation it arouses in the hearts of both the grown-up and the child. Appreciation of beauty is a natural instinct, and does not depend upon birth or training. The poorest tenement child, by way of contrast to his home surroundings if for no other reason, undoubtedly enjoys a visit to one of our city parks as much as the Fifth Avenue boy or girl. Jacob Riis has said, "We must put the robin and the dandelion into men's lives if we would have good citizenship."

Hand in hand with the esthetic go the educational, hygienic, and economic values of the city park. They dovetail together, each enhancing and supplementing the other. Happiness, health, and mental alertness are all offered the frequent visitor to these recreation centers.

The two views of the Bronx River Parkway at Williamsbridge in New York City were taken before and after the improvements had been made on this strip of land along the banks of the Bronx River. A movement to clear away the rubbish which accumulates along a river bank and to beautify these spots with grass and trees, shrubs and flowers is widespread throughout the country. The possibilities of this type of recreational area are appreciated more and more, and in many cities the unsightly river bank has been transformed into an attractive parkway. Every city now has its system of parks, some of vast extent; but in a city's plan for recreational areas the beauty and value of the river bank is a recent discovery.

Some of our cities are using their parks as community centers and offer a regular program for the public meetings that are held there.<sup>1</sup> The programs in Boston

Park are a mixture of motion pictures, community singing, silent talks on the screen, and slides, and five-minute punchy talks by individuals on some interesting community subject. Since the plan went into effect, Boston Park shows have offered no less than 2,000 programs to 2,500,000 people. Boy Scouts have assisted in the meetings. They have acted as ushers and leaders in the singing, and have given at the close of the evening a patriotic drill in the form of a color guard carrying different flags of the Nation and of the city.

## *Zoological Collections have Great Educative Value*

Of all the educative values which a city park may possess, the zoological garden is the most attractive and tangible. While the care of the animals is of paramount importance to the caretaker, the menagerie is arranged for the benefit of the visitor. This necessitates crowding and confinement of the animals, and often brings about insanitary conditions that are hazardous for the visitors and for the animals themselves. One has noticed the bored and stoical expression on the face of the old lion in his cage, and has felt that he is dreaming of the days when he was free to wander through the wide open spaces of his native haunts.

Some such appreciation of the effect of confinement behind bars on wild animal life has led the Chicago Zoological Society to build their new zoological gardens after the barless plan now in use in some foreign countries. Here the animals roam about in their native setting with no sign of restraining bars in sight. Here are bears, lions, wolves, and other formidable beasts within a few feet of people; held back from their human visitors and from each other by a deep moat, or a series of moats. Gardens in the Chicago Zoo are separated into special areas by the moats which surround the habitat of each individual group. For humane treatment of animals this plan of confinement should win universal approval.

The object of the Chicago Zoological Society, as of every other, is primarily to aid education. Its aims as stated are:



Bronx River Parkway before its conversion into a park

<sup>1</sup> American City Magazine, vol. 29.

The foundation, maintenance, and control of zoological parks or gardens and other collections; the promotion of zoology and kindred subjects; the instruction and recreation of the people; the collection, holding, and expenditure of funds for zoological research and publication; the protection of wild life, and kindred purposes.<sup>1</sup>

#### *Civic and Patriotic Value of Memorials*

After a war is over the people of a country endeavor to express in some manner their appreciation of the service rendered by the men who played their gallant part in the conflict. Such memorials often take the form of a statue of the hero, or of groups of statuary that are symbolic of some heroic deed in his life. Often a fountain with a flow of crystal water adds beauty to the memorial. The city of Washington has many statues along its streets and in its public parks. They contribute much of interest both to the resident and to the throngs of tourists who visit the city throughout the year. No child can see the shaft of granite dedicated to Washington's memory and the marble columns of the Lincoln shrine without some appreciation of the high ideals for which these great Americans stand.

More and more the cities of America are dedicating their municipal centers to our heroes of the Great War. Large tracts of land in business sections of the city have been requisitioned, and at great outlay of money and labor have been transformed into memorial parks, where public buildings are erected that house the official offices of the city.

In Indianapolis, the State of Indiana has taken over a line of city blocks half a mile in length for a memorial plaza in which is erected a memorial shrine in honor of the men and women who served in the World War. The national home of the American Legion is located here, and other buildings are planned as National and State memorials.

The buildings used by our heroes during their lifetime are often preserved in city parks. General Grant's headquarters in Fremont Park, Philadelphia, and Roose-



The Parkway is now one of the beauty spots of New York City

velt's ranch cabin in Roosevelt Park, Bismarck, N. Dak., are visited yearly by thousands of people who appreciate the service these great men rendered to their country.

#### *Memorials are of Many Different Types*

Cities are honoring their noble dead in many different ways. In the city of Circleville, Ohio, a chime of 11 bells has been hung in the courthouse tower and the bells are rung morning and evening, every day in the year. The largest of the bells is inscribed with the quotation, "To live in hearts we leave behind is not to die."

Savannah, Ga., has constructed a wide boulevard, the Victory Drive, 3 miles in length and with a central parkway bordered with palm trees, each tree named for one of the men of Chatham County who lost his life in the Great War.

In Shreveport, La., a new memorial auditorium has been erected that will seat 5,000 people.

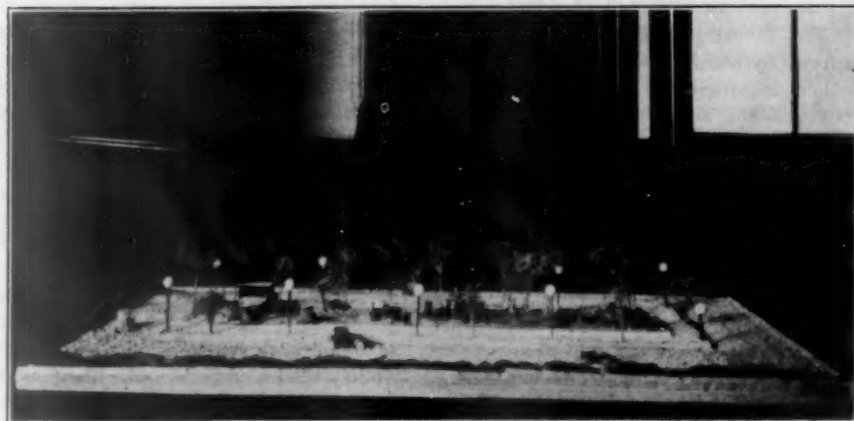
To be surrounded day by day with these reminders of brave lives and great achieve-

ments can not but impress our boys and girls with the fact that self-sacrifice and nobility of character will endure when lesser attributes are forgotten.

A graphic account of a school May Day pageant in Central Park, New York City, describes the day of the festival as warm and bright, when 900 children came marching over the greensward of Central Park, gay with costumes of every land and every time. "There were quaint colonial dames and squires, dainty Dresden shepherds and shepherdesses, clowns and mountebanks for the May Day sports; athletes with rods and dumbbells, uniformed in suits of blue crossbarred with white; Robin Hood and his foresters in woodland green with long bows and arrows; groups of dancing, singing wood flowers, tulips, snowdrops, and crocuses. There was the crowning of the queen, surrounded by her knights and ladies; the winding of the Maypole by the Dresden dancers; the feats of skill in games and archery. It was a beautiful sight to see in the heart of a great metropolis."

Costumes for this pageant were planned and made by the children during their sewing periods. The Maypole, the bows and arrows, the staves, and the swords were fashioned in the sloyd room. Songs and games were taught by the supervisor of music, and feats of skill by the physical director. History and literature were important subjects of study during these preparations, together with lessons in music, drama, drawing, construction, and writing.

Pageants less elaborate than this are well worth the time and work put upon them. A historical episode lends itself especially to this type of presentation. Its historical and literary values are evident. It provides a strong motive for



Children build a city park on a sand table

<sup>1</sup> American City Magazine, vol. 29.



manual training. Cooperation and harmony are developed and the artistic sense of color is cultivated.

A strong motive lay back of the carrying out of a project by a class of fifth-grade pupils—the construction of a city park on a sand table for exhibition later at the Sesquicentennial in Philadelphia.

For a permanent exhibit it was thought best to build this project with plaster of Paris, but sand-table modeling will do for a temporary exhibit. Actual measurements were taken of the width of streets, sidewalks, and parking near the school; the height of trees, lamp-posts, and even the curbing. Figures were then reduced in due proportion to fractions of an inch.

Dried stalks of golden rod were used for trees, and as the scene represented an autumn landscape with trees in autumn colors, they were dipped first in shellac and then in small pots of green, red, yellow, and brown oil paints; and they made an almost perfect representation of an elm tree. Shrubs and flowers were prepared in the same way.

Lead soldiers were bought at 10-cent stores, and after their guns were broken off they closely resembled up-to-date chauffeurs. To represent women strolling through the park, clay dresses and hats were modeled over the uniforms of the toy soldiers. Benches cut out of tin and painted black offered resting places, and toy automobiles were placed at intervals in the grounds. A fruitstand near the entrance offered clay fruit for sale.

#### *Suggestions for Teachers*

Have pupils make a list of the benefits they enjoy in our city parks. Ask them, "Do you visit the city parks often? What do you do there? What safeguards for the public health do you see there? Do the people conform to these rules? What are the penalties for disregarding them? Are rules necessary?"

Plan with the children a pageant in your class, to be given in the city park. Call the class together and select the play. Arrange committees to take charge of certain parts of the pageant. You will need committees on planning the play, on costumes, on accessories, on directing it. Study the May Day pageant given in Central Park, which you will find in "Plays and Pageants," by Percival Chubb. The play, "How Charlemagne Found Holland," based upon an incident in medieval history, is in the same volume.

Study the history of your own town and see if you can discover incidents that will make a good play. On application to the Office of Education of the Interior Department, Washington, D. C., you will receive references to historical pageants that have been given in other towns and cities. Upon these you can model a pageant for your own community.

## Home Work of Elementary School Children and its Correlative Class Study

*Investigation, from Two Different Angles, of Home Work of Elementary Children in Schools of New York City Involved Study Habits of Pupils in 150 Schools. To Improve Situation, Unsatisfactory Alike to Parents and Teachers, Specific Recommendations Are Made Concerning Assignments and General Plan of Home Work*

By JOSEPH H. WADE

*District Superintendent, Department of Education of the City of New York*

TO investigate the problem of home work in elementary schools of New York City, the president of the Association of District Superintendents of the city recently appointed a committee. Of this committee the writer was chairman.

#### *Experienced Committee of Investigation Appointed*

After careful and thorough consideration of the subject it was unanimously decided by the committee to formulate a report which would supplement to some extent the admirable report on the problem of home work which had previously been made to the New York Academy of Public Education by its committee on administration. The members of the committee of the academy were, with one exception, district superintendents of schools in New York City who were thoroughly familiar with the work of elementary schools. In fact district superintendents may be considered field officers of the department of education.

In order to draft a report which would be based on real information and not on theory, the committee sent out a questionnaire. To this, 616 replies were received. Answers came from the following sources: Superintendents, examiners, and instructors in training schools, 15; principals of high schools and training schools, 6; principals of elementary schools, 172; assistant principals of elementary schools, 56; class teachers in elementary schools, 367.

#### *Survey Conducted in 150 Schools*

The investigation entailed a personal survey by members of the committee and other members of the academy, and covered the subject in more than 150 schools. The published report was used by the present committee of district superintendents in formulating its report. In addition to the information on hand, members of the committee submitted a summary of recommendations and suggestions as a result of their personal experience with the problem in their respective districts.

Many of the suggestions emphasized the need of teaching pupils how to study, and also the necessity of carefully con-

sidering home conditions and environment of pupils. It was found that many teachers in the higher grades use the time for actual study only, but that in the lower grades teachers use most of the time for explanation.

It developed in the investigation that a number of principals consider it necessary to forbid teachers to do any clerical work during study periods. The time should not be used to correct compositions, or to write up records or reports. It is for the teacher the most important period of the day, when individual work may be done which the mass teaching of our public schools renders difficult. Some teachers make no regular subdivision of the time into a period for explanation, and one for study, but give explanations to the entire class.

#### *Assignment of Work for Home Study*

Use of the period depended to some extent upon the subject assigned, or its special difficulty. Other teachers used the period for correction and explanation of the home work of the previous day. But use of all the time for this purpose would defeat the main object to be attained, namely, training pupils in habits of study.

Teachers and supervisors urged that study periods be marked by easy but quiet discipline, during which time the teacher might help individual pupils, or a group, or the whole class. Many insisted that it should not be made a period for sustained written work.

Superintendents recommended that some uniform procedure be adopted by the principal to regulate the general plan of home study, especially in the higher grades. Attention was called to the difficulty of getting boys to do real study, though they will do written work. Home assignments should be given for drill and review, but never for new work. The committee found that the home-work problem is equally unsatisfactory to both parents and teachers. In all assignments of home work teachers must consider the ability of the classes under their charge.

We all realize that in many homes there is little opportunity for the quiet and



concentration which children need in their study, but parents who are ambitious for the success of their children will often manage to secure both the place and time for such home work.

#### *Home Conditions Are an Important Factor*

We learn by experience that pupils who have the most leisure and also the greatest privacy for their home work are not always among the most successful pupils in school. We find that in some cases children do not begin their home work until late in the evening when they should be in bed, and we know that many children spend their evenings on the street or in cheap entertainments and take up their home work at the last moment merely because of the feeling that they must make some showing. Such home work naturally counts for little in the child's progress through school.

In summarizing the suggestions and recommendations of the previous report on this subject, made by the committee of the Academy of Education, the present committee of district superintendents formulated the following statement:

#### *Suggestions and Recommendations*

1. There is a real demand for home work performed under proper supervision.

2. Compulsory home work should be prohibited for children below the fourth school year.

3. For pupils in seventh-year classes, the maximum time for home lessons should be one hour. In eighth-year classes it should be one hour and a half.

4. Home study properly explained and carefully supervised will develop self-reliance, neatness, concentration, accuracy, industry, responsibility, thoroughness, and the habit of study.

5. Proper home study is a factor in the improvement not only of the school, but of the home as well.

6. Principals and teachers must use every means to make home work both honest and effective.

7. Systematic plans must be made for the supervision of all home work so that it may not become an undue strain upon the energy of the class teacher, nor take time which should be devoted to class instruction.

8. In assigning home work, actual study should demand one-half the additional time which is given to written work.

9. Principals have no more important duty than carefully to supervise both the assignments of home study and the methods of determining the honesty and efficiency of results.

10. No home work should be permitted unless adequate explanation has been given in school by the teacher.

11. In departmental work there is great danger of assignment of excessive home work. In graduation classes, however, pupils must become thoroughly accustomed to home work or they will be badly handicapped when they enter high school.

12. It is advisable in most schools to ask parents at least once a week to sign the written home work.

13. The same amount of home work should not be expected from all classes in the same grade. The "two" or slower classes should be given a smaller portion than "one" class of the same grade.

14. The chief aim of home work should be to supplement classroom instruction. It should be educational, and it should not be regarded as a preventive measure to keep children off the street.

15. To a great degree home work varies according to neighborhood conditions.

16. Quality, not quantity, should be the standard of efficiency in judging the results of home work.

17. Principals should control the specialists in departmental work, and prevent the demand for the preparation of too elaborate notebooks, drawings, maps, or essays.

18. In every school some uniform plan should be adopted to regulate the general plan of home study, and throughout all grades teachers should be directed in the use of the study period where such period is utilized.

#### *The Teacher is Key to Situation*

Every intelligent teacher should ask herself, How can I excite in my pupils an interest in their studies? She must look for the motives that will induce interest—first in the class work, and then in the home work. If a class as a whole neglects its home study we may be sure that the teacher is largely to blame. She has not trained her pupils how to study. She has not excited any interest in the work, or she has assigned home work without necessary explanation and we may expect the natural result of lack of interest.

The committee urged teachers not to depend upon the assistance of parents in the problem of home work. Such help may or may not be granted. Many parents, even if willing to help, are unable to do so, and they are right in considering that the teacher is the expert who trains the child to study. Therefore, while home work is important for pupils in the higher grades, we must realize that for the elementary child the classroom is the best place for study. There we have intelligent and expert supervisors of the work, books and other helps are at hand, and the child has the quiet and environment that are necessary for the fullest concentration.

## Art Museum's Service to Industrial Arts

(Continued from page 75)

prove that good design "sells" the article.

4. They afford an opportunity for industrial art workers to make a comparative study of the works of other designers.

Another important service carried on by museums is in giving inspiration and instruction through illustrated and printed matter. This is done through bulletins, museum news, pamphlets, quarterlies, leaflets, monographs, and technical literature.

#### *The Problem Must be Squarely Faced*

In 1927 America found that, due to lack of originality, she could not exhibit her designs in competition with those of Europe. In the same year museum officials and designers became vitally interested in modern design, recognizing that it reflected the spirit of the age. The wonders of machinery, new means of travel, new manners, customs, and attitudes, all furnish inspiration to designers; possession, therefore, of a new set of beliefs gives them a goal toward which to work. Those interested in the new design feel it must reflect the spirit of American life to-day. The most striking inspiration for some of the modern designs in furniture and in table silver has been suggested by the skyscraper. American design is in a transitory stage of development, but the plan of procedure has been chosen, and with museum advice as to artistic quality, the road is open for the creation of a contemporary American design.

Museums serve as a clearing house for changing ideals in design. With these new beliefs and aims, museums will need to revise their educational methods in order to further the new trends in design which stand for severe structural simplicity, severity of line and form devoid of ornament. Museums are able to do a very important work through the development in designers and the public as well, of a discriminating taste that will enable them to select the most worth while, sane ideas, and ignore the far-fetched element often present in some of the modern designs.

During the years 1918-1928 most of the notable American art museums have changed into the new-type active museum, willing to serve and to promote the interests of a great democracy in all matters pertaining to artistic expression. At present, its greatest problem is in seeking to place American design on a par with European design. The status of art museums has changed, in that they have become an organized body of educational institutions, anxious to face new problems as they appear in a changing democracy.

## New Books In Education

By MARTHA R. McCABE

*Acting Librarian, Office of Education*

BURGESS, ERNEST W., ed. *Personality and the social group*. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago press [1929]. xii, 230 p. tables. 12°. (The University of Chicago sociological series; editorial committee: Ellsworth Faris, Robert E. Park, Ernest W. Burgess.)

This is a collection of articles by a group of sociologists on subjects representing a new approach to the study of personality, that is, the point of view which regards personality as a product of group life. Twenty chapters, representing 20 specialists, present aspects of human behavior, and are indicative of present interest in the research into personality now being developed among social psychologists. The book gives a picture of opinions and points of view, methods of study, etc., employed by sociologists in their research which will, in the editor's opinion, stimulate growth in the cultural approach to the study of the subject of personality.

HARTSHORNE, HUGH; MAY, MARK A.; and MALLER, JULIUS B. *Studies in service and self-control... By the Character education inquiry... in cooperation with the Institute of social and religious research... Book 1, Studies in service; book 2, Studies in self-control*. New York, The Macmillan company, 1929. xxiii, 559 p. tables, diagrs.

The first volume in this series, inaugurated by the Character education inquiry, was *Studies in deceit*. The present study was instigated by the Religious education association and other national bodies in the expectation of making an exploratory study in the outcomes of religious and ethical instruction, and a period of 5 years was devoted to the investigation. The authors have dealt primarily with behaviors, although motives were also studied at times. A number of tests were devised and administered to children, to measure cooperative and charitable behavior, the factors associated with service, the measurement of self-control, and the factors associated with self-control. The conclusion reached and the implications are presented in the concluding chapter of the volume.

JONES, JANE LOUISE. *A personnel study of women deans in colleges and universities*. New York city, Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1928. 155 p. tables, diagrs. 8°. (Teachers college, Columbia university. Contributions to education, no. 326.)

This is an investigation of the number of women performing the functions of deans, their academic rank, their work as teachers, their salaries, social relationships, duties and schedules of a day's work, their vocational guidance activities, and the professional training of deans. Among other data furnished is a directory of accredited colleges and universities having a woman dean, and a time chart for deans to be used for conferences, social functions, etc.

LEONARD, R. J.; EVENDEN, E. S.; and O'REAR, F. B. *Survey of higher education for the United Lutheran church in America...* New York city, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1929. 3 v. illus. (incl. maps) tables, diagrs. 8°.

This survey was made at the direction of the Board of education of the United Lutheran church of America by the authors named and other members of Teachers college, Columbia university, both staff members and graduate students. The plan of the survey included a picture in general of the educational work of this church, and its evaluation. A special investigation was made of each college under the care of the church, its history, charter and legal restrictions, its external and internal administration, the instructional staff, students, curricula, finances, physical plants, and extracurricular activities. The study also involved special investigations of athletics, student publications, student self-government, the library, extension activities, etc. The survey presents a real contribution to the literature of the denominational or church college.

McGREGOR, A. LAURA. *The junior high school teacher*. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Doran & company, inc., 1929. xv, 284 p. front., illus., tables, diagrs. 8°.

The junior high school is defined in the opening pages, 10 distinguishing characteristics of this type of organization being given as furnished by the Research division of the National education association. Considerable space is given over to a discussion of the school program, administrative factors such as centralization, departmentalization, differentiation, the teacher as director of learning in the classroom, as counselor in the home-room, as coworker in the school community, and as a student in the educational world. The training and compensation of the junior high school teacher are dealt with in the last chapter.

MATEER, FLORENCE. *Just normal children*. New York and London, D. Appleton and company [1929]. xiv, 294 p. 12°.

A number of "cases" have been brought together in this study, each case representing a well-known type of child, and each constituting a problem to be solved. The author combines the qualities of a trained clinical psychologist with those of an apt story-teller. In dealing with each typical case, the needed treatment is suggested and the method outlined in detail. The discussion is carried on in the question-and-answer form at times, and is designed for both teachers and parents, to give them a proper understanding of "the factors that affect behavior—mentally, emotionally, socially, educationally and economically."

THWING, CHARLES FRANKLIN. *Education and religion*. New York, The Macmillan company, 1929. 264 p. 8°. (The Bedell lectures for 1926-27; and other addresses on construction and reconstruction in education.)

This book includes four lectures of the Bedell foundation, created by its founders for the purpose of interpreting both natural and revealed religion, and for examining the relations of science and religion. The remaining chapters represent addresses given by a college president on those subjects of vital interest to a student body. The chapters on the legal and medical professions, and the ministry provide material for vocational counselors. The superior student is the subject of some discussion, in which three direct methods of aiding such students are suggested: (1) By inspiring devotion to the great subjects, mainly by offering enriched courses; by conferences with teachers; by reading and research; (2) by making use of the tutorial method, or bringing the great teacher and the superior student together; and (3) by furnishing great teachers and leaders for this purpose.

WERNER, OSCAR HELMUTH. *Every college student's problems*. New York, Newark [etc.] Silver, Burdett and company [1929]. ix, 370, xix p. tables, diagrs. 8°.

The author emphasizes the importance of starting right, considering the value of orientation in the beginning days or weeks of the freshman year. Ways of meeting many of the problems that perplex students have been suggested—how to study, how to think, how to form reliable judgments, etc. One of the most thoughtful parts of the study has to do with the theme of forming right judgments without which no young man or woman can be a success. Judgment is shown as a high type of thinking, and suggestions are given in the way of developing reliable judgments. An extensive, classified bibliography has been furnished with the volume.

WILLIAMS, CORA L. *Adding a new dimension to education*. San Francisco, California press, publishers, 1928. x, 285 p. 8°.

The writer of this book is director of the Williams institute for creative education, Berkeley, Calif. A new philosophy of education has been formulated, and is here presented as a growth in consciousness—all human values, including genius itself, are possible through the right integration. In describing this type of work being done with students, "the portrait of a school," Williams institute, is presented, as the portrait of an entity in the process of becoming a new thing in education, embodying what the author terms "the principle of human relativity."

WOOD, BEN D. and FREEMAN, FRANK N. *Motion pictures in the classroom; an experiment to measure the value of motion pictures as supplementary aids in regular classroom instruction*. Boston, New York [etc.] Houghton Mifflin company [1929]. xxi, 392 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 12°.

This volume presents the report of an experiment conducted in 12 cities by a Committee on visual education appointed by the National education association in 1922. The committee was appointed annually, Dr. Charles H. Judd being the chairman of the first committee, and Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, and Dr. Frank Cody each serving as chairman later on. The cooperation of the Eastman kodak co. was also engaged in the undertaking. The investigation involved the testing of nearly 11,000 children in more than 300 geography and general science classes taught by nearly 200 teachers in grades 4 to 9, and distributed in 12 cities scattered widely over the United States. The report is summarized and the findings are given.



# Christmas Program for Parent-Teacher Associations

By ELLEN C. LOMBARD

THE DECEMBER PROGRAM of parent-teacher associations offers an excellent opportunity to develop the spirit and meaning of Christmas; it may anticipate the holidays by surrounding the school and the home with an atmosphere of joyful expectancy. (Teachers will be relieved at an opportune time in the school year, if the parents in the association will take much of the responsibility for planning and carrying out Christmas programs on the last half-day of the school term. (Since the children will be at home for a week or more some provision should be made for them to entertain themselves. These days will result in happy memories of the home. This is a time for the younger ones to dramatize the stories they like, and for the older ones to arrange plays for the enjoyment of the family and the neighbors. (At Christmas time the ever-present problem of selecting suitable gifts is again to be met. There should be more books, better books, books of fiction, and books of poetry, and they should be of lasting value. Subscriptions to good magazines for children will make Christmas last throughout the year.

## READINGS

"The only gift is a portion of thyself."—Emerson.

THE BIRTH OF CHRIST. (The gift to the world.) *In the Bible* (any ed.) Luke 2, 8-20, inclusive.

"Good tidings of great joy which shall be to all people."

GIFTS. *In Essays*. Ralph Waldo Emerson. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co. "Next to things of necessity the rule for a gift \* \* \* is that we might convey to some person that which properly belonged to his character and was easily associated with him in thought."

A CHRISTMAS CAROL. Charles Dickens. Akron, Ohio, Saalfeld Publishing Co., 1929. 24 p. illus.

Miser Scrooge, Bob Cratchit, Tiny Tim, and the Cratchit family in general are characters that Dickens made immortal. The writings of Dickens gave a new meaning to Christmas.

WHY THE CHIMES RANG. Raymond McDonald Alden. Indianapolis, Ind., Bobbs-Merrill, 1908.

Joy in service to others, self-sacrifice and discrimination in giving are some of the spiritual values developed in this tale.

CHRISTMAS EVERY DAY, and Other Stories Told for Children. William Dean Howells. New York, Harper Bros., 1893. 150 p.

Full of fun and a subtle influence in curbing Christmas desires, told in whimsical fashion.

BIRDS' CHRISTMAS CAROL. Kate Douglas Wiggin. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. 69 p.

"If you buy everything, it doesn't show so much love." Carol Bird.

## A FEW HOLIDAY PLAYS AND PAGEANTS FOR CHILDREN

"At Christmas play and make good cheer,  
For Christmas comes but once a year."

LITTLE PLAYS FOR CHRISTMAS. Ada Clark and others. Chicago, Beckley-Cardy Co., 1928. 132 p. illus.

Eight short plays suited to the ability of smaller children, and for intermediate and larger children. Ethical but not religious. Suitable for home or school.

JOLLY PLAYS FOR HOLIDAYS. Carolyn Wells. Boston, Mass., Walter H. Baker, 1914. 148 p.

A collection of 6 Christmas plays: The Greatest Gift; Christmas Gifts of All Nations; The Greatest Day of the Year; Is Santa Claus a Fraud?; A Substitute for Santa Claus; The Day Before Christmas. (For older boys and girls.)

THE TOY SHOP. Percival Wilde. Boston, Mass., Walter H. Baker, 1924. 47 p. Time: Christmas. Place: The Toy Shop. Betsey and Bobby locked on Christmas Eve in a toy shop. Their dramatic discovery. For reading only. Dramatic presentations may be made upon written permission of the author.

EIGHT LITTLE PLAYS FOR CHILDREN. Rose Fyleman. New York, Doran, 1925. 94 p.

Father Christmas, p. 88-94. A play for a toy theater which might be adapted for children.

SPECIAL DAY PAGEANTS. For Little People. Bemis and Kennedy. New York, A. S. Barnes, 1927. 48 p.

Twenty-one little pageants suitable for children from the first to the fourth grades. The Christmas pageant is easily arranged for very little ones.

LITTLE PLAYS FOR LITTLE PEOPLE. Sanford and Schaffler. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1929. 361 p.

"Every child loves to pretend, and the whole art of acting is doing nothing more nor less than pretending to be somebody else. Children if left to themselves will make up their own plays." They frequently dramatize the stories they read in school.

PLAYS FOR OUR AMERICAN HOLIDAYS. Schaffler and Sanford. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1928. Plays for Christmas, p. 3-133.

"Recreation through laughter" is the aim of these plays. They present character education in a new way. (For all ages of children.)

PLAYS FOR CHILDREN. Alice I. Hazeltine. St. Louis, Mo., St. Louis Public Library, monthly bulletin, 1918.

(See Plays for Special Days, p. 320. Christmas Day.)

## PICTURE BOOKS FOR LITTLE ONES

PICTURE BOOKS. Randolph Caldicott. New York, Frederick Warne & Co.

PETER RABBIT SERIES. Beatrix Potter. New York, Frederick Warne & Co. (3-7 years.)

THE GOLDEN GOOSE BOOK. Leslie L. Brooke. New York, Frederick Warne & Co. (3-7 years.)

FAVORITE MOTHER GOOSE RHYMES. Blanche Fisher Wright. New York, Rand McNally & Co. (5-8 years.)

THE CHILD'S FIRST BOOKS. A study of picture and story books for the preschool child. New York, Child Study Association of America, Inc., 1925. (Includes an annotated list.)

## STORIES TO TELL OR READ TO YOUNGER CHILDREN

STORIES TO TELL TO CHILDREN. Sara Cone Bryant. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co. (3-9 years.)

THE CHILDREN'S BOOK. Horace E. Scudder. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co. (6-13 years.)

FAIRY TALES. Hans Christian Andersen. (Any good edition.) (8-13 years.)

RHYMES AND STORIES. Marion Florence Lansing. New York, Ginn & Co., 1907. 182 p. illus. (Favorite folk tales.)

## POETRY FOR CHILDREN

THE GOLDEN STAIRCASE. Louis Chisholm. New York, Putnam's Sons. (5-12 years.)

BALLADS FOR LITTLE FOLKS. Alice and Phoebe Cary. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co. (4-10 years.)

RHYMES OF CHILDHOOD. James Whitcomb Riley. Indianapolis, Ind., Bobbs-Merrill. (5-10 years.)

SING-SONG. Christina Rossetti. New York, Macmillan Co. (9-13 years.)

A CHILD'S GARDEN OF VERSES. Robert Louis Stevenson. (5-12 years.)

## FOR THE CHILDREN'S LIBRARY

ALICE IN WONDERLAND. Lewis Carroll. New York, Dutton & Co. (Ages 8 and over.)

CINDERELLA. New York, University Press. 62 p. A choice edition artistically illustrated.

LITTLE WOMEN. Louisa M. Alcott. Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1928. (10-14 years.)

LITTLE MEN. Louisa M. Alcott. Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1928. (10-14 years.)

THE HOLLY-TREE AND OTHER CHRISTMAS STORIES. Charles Dickens. Scribner's Sons [n. d.].

MASTER SKYLARK. John Bennett. New York, Century Co., 1924. 322 p.

THE AENEID FOR BOYS AND GIRLS. Alfred J. Church. New York, Macmillan Co. (10-15 years.)

Greek legends and myths retold.

FAIRY STORIES AND FABLES. James Baldwin. New York, American Book Co., 1895. 176 p. (7-11 years.)

FOLK STORIES AND FABLES. Eva March Tappan. (The Children's Hour.) Vol. I. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1907.

STORY HOUR FAVORITES. Wilhelmina Harper. New York, Century Co., 1919. (3-8 years.)

FIRELIGHT STORIES. Carolyn Sherwin Bailey. Springfield, Mass., Milton Bradley Co., 1907.

CHRISTMAS IN STORYLAND. Maud Van Buren and Katherine I. Bemis. New York, Century Co., 1927. 327 p.

LAD: A DOG. Albert Payson Terhune. New York, Dutton & Co. (For children and adults.)

A dog story that boys like to read.

SMOKY. Will James. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. 1928. 262 p. (For children and adults.)

"Smoky is just a horse, but all horse."

WHEN WE WERE VERY YOUNG. A. A. Milne. New York, Dutton & Co. (5-8 years.)

## PRIZE CHILDREN'S STORIES

THE TRUMPETER OF KRAKOW. Eric P. Kelly. New York, Macmillan Co., 1929. 213 p. illus.

Adventure and mystery surround this story of a trumpeter in the ancient city of Krakow.

GAY-NECK. illus. Dhan Gopal Mukerji. New York, Dutton & Co., 1928. 197 p.

Good to read to a mixed group of adults and children. The story of a pigeon and his training.

THE TRADE WIND. Cornelia Meigs. Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1929. A story of adventure on the high seas.

## LIST OF MAGAZINES FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

Buddy Book, Child Life, Child Play, John Martin's Book, Junior Home, Nature Magazine, Popular Mechanics, Popular Science Monthly, and St Nicholas.

## CHRISTMAS *for* ALL

**T**HE first quality of a spiritual gift is its universality. It belongs to all people. The exigencies of time and space may call for a limited reception at first, but the gift is not for a privileged few but for all men. \* \* \* ¶ And indeed one of the most characteristic features of the Christmas spirit is the desire to share its celebration as widely as possible. The spirit of generosity is abroad. We can not bear to hear of anyone left out. Every appeal for neglected humanity falls on sympathetic ears. The solidarity of the human race is an accepted axiom at this season. ¶ The next step toward the fulfillment of the Christmas spirit is evident; we must make the attitude of good will a permanent spiritual relation with all men. ¶ There are many signs to the unjaundiced eye that this movement is begun. May it receive a fresh impetus and an increasing stability in each Christmas season.

—HENRY VAN DYKE.

